

LINGUISTIC SURVEY OF INDIA.



BY

SIR G. A. GRIERSON, K.C.I.E., PH.D., D.LITT., LL.D., I.C.S. (Retd.).



VOL. I.

PART I.

INTRODUCTORY.

LINGUISTIC SURVEY OF INDIA

VOL. I

PART I

INTRODUCTORY

BY

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τὴν δύναμιν τῆς φωνῆς, ἔσομαι τῷ χαλοῦντι βάρβαρος· καὶ ὁ λαλῶν, ἐν ἐμοὶ βάρβαρος.

I Corinthians, xiv, 10, 11.

The following is the list of volumes of the Linguistic Survey of India.

- Vol. I. Part I. Introduction.
,, II. Comparative Vocabulary of Indian Languages.
,, III. Comparative Dictionary of the Indo-Aryan Languages.
,, II. Mōn-Khmēr and Tai families.
,, III. Part I. Tibeto-Burman languages of Tibet and North Assam.
,, II. Bodo, Nāgā, and Kachin groups of the Tibeto-Burman languages.
,, III. Kuki-Chin and Burma groups of the Tibeto-Burman languages.
,, IV. Muṇḍā and Dravidian languages.
,, V. Indo-Aryan languages, Eastern group.
,, Part I. Bengali and Assamese.
,, II. Bihārī and Oṛiyā.
,, VI. Indo-Aryan languages, Mediate group (Eastern Hindī).
,, VII. Indo-Aryan languages, Southern group (Marāṭhī).
,, VIII. Indo-Aryan languages, North-Western group.
,, Part I. Sindhi and Lahndā.
,, II. Dardic, or Piśācha, languages (including Kāshmīrī).
,, IX. Indo-Aryan languages, Central group.
,, Part I. Western Hindī and Pañjābī.
,, II. Rājasthānī and Gujarātī.
,, III. Bhil languages, Khāndēśī, etc.
,, IV. Pahārī languages.
,, X. Eranian family.
,, XI. "Gipsy" languages.

PREFACE.

In this Volume it has been my object to present a summary of the results of the Linguistic Survey of India, so far as it has been under my charge, in a form convenient for reference alike to professed students of language and to the lay reader.

The descriptive portion falls into two sections. In the first, which I have named the Introduction, I have given an account of previous attempts to set forth the languages of India, and of the procedure followed in the present Survey. Some of what is stated in this section will also be found scattered through other volumes, but here it is all brought together in one collected account.

The second section is an attempt to bring under one view the results of the Survey and the lessons to be derived from them. Much of it has been based on the Chapter on the Languages of India contributed by me to the Indian Census Report for the year 1901, but this has been brought up to date, and a good deal has been added to it. That chapter may, in fact, be looked upon as a first draft of this section of the volume. Written as it was nearly a quarter of a century ago, there have been found many opportunities for additions and improvements.

These two sections are followed by two collections (*Majora* and *Minora*) of Addenda and Corrigenda for the whole Survey. The first (*Addenda Majora*) consists of the more important additions, and, especially, of accounts of languages for which materials became available after the volume referred to had gone to press. Only in this way have I been able to bring the earlier volumes up to date. The *Addenda et Corrigenda Minora* mainly include additions of detail, corrections of misprints and of mistakes of my own, and the like. These latter are issued loose and are printed in such a way that they can be readily cut up and inserted in their proper places in the several volumes of the Survey.

To the whole, three Appendixes have been added. The first is a classified list of all the languages of India, in which the statistics of the Survey have been compared with those of the Census of 1921. The second Appendix is a list of those Indian languages of which gramophone records are available in this country and in Paris, and the third is an Index of all the names referring to languages of India that I have been able to collect. I hope that the last will be found a useful work of reference for anyone who may desire to identify a name with which he is not familiar. It also forms an Index to the contents of Volumes II to XI of the Survey itself.

A second part of this volume is now in the press. It is a comparative vocabulary of 168 selected words in about 368 different languages and dialects, and will, I hope, be found useful by students of languages.

A third part is being prepared by the competent pen of Professor Turner of the School of Oriental Studies. It will be a Comparative Dictionary of the Indo-Aryan Languages, for the special use of philologists. It will appear in due course, and will complete the Survey.

It is with a feeling of gratitude for having been permitted to finish a work extending over thirty years that, after writing this Preface, the pen will be laid down. Without any pretended modesty I confess that no one is more than myself aware of the deficiencies of

the Survey, nor, on the other hand, need I plead guilty to a vain boast when I claim that what has been done in it for India has been done for no other country in the world. Such as it is, I bid it adieu, sure of sympathy with my mistakes, and of appreciation of what in it is worthy, on the part of those lovers of India who are competent to put its merits and its defects to test.

GEORGE A. GRIERSON.

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LINGUISTIC SURVEY OF INDIA.

SYSTEM OF TRANSLITERATION ADOPTED.

A.—For the Dēva-nāgarī alphabet, and others related to it—

अ *a*, आ *ā*, इ *i*, ई *ē*, उ *u*, ऊ *ū*, ऋ *ṛ*, ए *e*, ऐ *ai*, ओ *o*, औ *ō*, श्री *su*.
 क *ka* ख *kha* ग *ga* घ *gha* ङ *ṅa* च *cha* छ *chha* ज *ja* झ *jha* ञ *ña*
 ट *ṭa* ठ *ṭha* ड *ḍa* ढ *ḍha* ण *ṇa* त *ta* थ *tha* द *da* ध *dha* न *na*
 प *pa* फ *pha* ब *bā* भ *bha* म *ma* य *ya* र *ra* ल *la* व *va* or *wa*
 श *śa* ष *ṣa* स *sa* ह *ha* ङ *ṅa* ढ *ḍha* ञ *ña* ल *la* व *va* or *wa*

Visarga (:) is represented by *h*, thus क्रमः *kramaśh*. Anuswāra (◌̣) is represented by *m*, thus सिंह *simh*, वंश *vaṁś*. In Bengali and some other languages it is pronounced *ng*, and is then written *ng*; thus बंग *bangśa*. Anunāsika or Chandra-bindu is represented by the sign ~ over the letter nasalized, thus मै *mē*.

B.—For the Arabic alphabet, as adapted to Hindōstānī—

ا <i>a</i> , etc.	ج <i>j</i>	د <i>d</i>	ر <i>r</i>	س <i>s</i>	ع <i>‘</i>
ب <i>b</i>	ح <i>ch</i>	ڌ <i>ḍ</i>	ڙ <i>ṛ</i>	ش <i>sh</i>	غ <i>gh</i>
پ <i>p</i>	ک <i>k</i>	ز <i>z</i>	ڙ <i>ṛ</i>	ص <i>s</i>	ف <i>f</i>
ت <i>t</i>	ٿ <i>ṭh</i>		ڙ <i>ṛ</i>	ض <i>ḍ</i>	ق <i>q</i>
ٺ <i>ṭ</i>				ط <i>ṭ</i>	ک <i>k</i>
ث <i>ṭ</i>				ظ <i>ḍ</i>	گ <i>g</i>
					ل <i>l</i>
					م <i>m</i>
					ن <i>n</i>
					when representing <i>anunāsika</i> in Dēva-nāgarī, by ~ over nasalized vowel.
					و <i>w</i> or <i>v</i>
					ه <i>h</i>
					ی <i>y</i> , etc.

Tanwīn is represented by *n*, thus فَاوْرَان *fauran*. Alif-i-maqṣūra is represented by *ā*;—thus دَاوَا *da'wā*.

In the Arabic character, a final silent *h* is not transliterated,—thus بَنْدَا *banda*. When pronounced, it is written,—thus گُنَاہ *gunāh*.

Vowels when not pronounced at the end of a word, are not written in transliteration. Thus बान *ban*, not *bana*. When not pronounced in the middle of a word or only slightly pronounced in the middle or at the end of a word, they are written in small characters above the line. Thus (Hindī) देखता *dēkh-tā*, pronounced *dēkhtā*; (Kāsh-mīrī) तह *te'h*; कर *kar*, pronounced *kor*; (Bihārī) देखिय *dēkhath*.

C.—Special letters peculiar to special languages will be dealt with under the head of the languages concerned. In the meantime the following more important instances may be noted :—

- (a) The *ts* sound found in Marāṭhī (च), Paṣtō (ټ), Kāshmīrī (ټ, च), Tibetan (𑄎), and elsewhere, is represented by *ts*. So, the aspirate of that sound is represented by *tsʰ*.
- (b) The *dz* sound found in Marāṭhī (ज), Paṣtō (ځ), and Tibetan (𑄏), is represented by *dz*, and its aspirate by *dzʰ*.
- (c) Kāshmīrī (ټ) is represented by *ñ*.
- (d) Sindhi (ڄ), Western Pañjābī (and elsewhere on the N.-W. Frontier) ڄ, and Paṣtō ڄ or ڄ are represented by *ɟ*.
- (e) The following are letters peculiar to Paṣtō :—
 ټ *t*; ټ *ts* or *dz*, according to pronunciation; ځ *d*; ځ *r*; ځ *zh* or *y*, according to pronunciation; ځ *sh* or *kh*, according to pronunciation; ځ or ځ *n*.
- (f) The following are letters peculiar to Sindhi :—
 ڄ *bb*; ڄ *bh*; ڄ *th*; ڄ *t*; ڄ *th*; ڄ *ph*; ڄ *ij*; ڄ *jh*; ڄ *chh*; ڄ *ñ*; ڄ *dh*; ڄ *d*; ڄ *dd*; ڄ *dh*; ڄ *k*; ڄ *kh*; ڄ *gg*; ڄ *gh*; ڄ *n*; ڄ *n*.

D.—Certain sounds, which are not provided for above, occur in transcribing languages which have no alphabet, or in writing phonetically (as distinct from transliterating) languages (such as Bengali) whose spelling does not represent the spoken sounds. The principal of these are the following :—

<i>ā</i> ,	represents the sound of the <i>a</i> in <i>all</i> .
<i>ā</i> ,	” ” ” <i>a</i> in <i>hat</i> .
<i>ě</i> ,	” ” ” <i>e</i> in <i>met</i> .
<i>ō</i> ,	” ” ” <i>o</i> in <i>hot</i> .
<i>e</i> ,	” ” ” <i>é</i> in the French <i>était</i> .
<i>o</i> ,	” ” ” <i>o</i> in the first <i>o</i> in <i>promote</i> .
<i>ō</i> ,	” ” ” <i>ō</i> in the German <i>schön</i> .
<i>ü</i> ,	” ” ” <i>ü</i> in the ” <i>mühe</i> .
<i>th</i> ,	” ” ” <i>th</i> in <i>think</i> .
<i>dh</i> ,	” ” ” <i>th</i> in <i>this</i> .

The semi-consonants peculiar to the Mundā languages are indicated by an apostrophe. Thus *k'*, *t'*, *p'*, and so on.

E.—When it is necessary to mark an accented syllable, the acute accent is used. Thus in (Khōwār) *assistai*, he was, the acute accent shows that the accent falls on the first, and not, as might be expected, on the second syllable.

INTRODUCTION

The languages of India have from the earliest times been an object of interest to those that spoke them, but their serious study by foreigners is not more than three hundred years old. Even the great

Albirūnī in the account of the India of his day (about 1030 A.D.) spoke only of Sanskrit, then a dead language, and its difficulties. Regarding the living forms of speech, he merely said,¹ "Further, the language is divided into a neglected vernacular one, only in use among the common people, and a classical one, only in use among the upper and educated classes, which is much cultivated."

Amir Khusrau, a Turk by origin, but born in India, gives us (1317 A.D.) more detailed information.² He says:—

As I was born in Hind, I may be allowed to say a word respecting its language. There is at this time in every province a language peculiar to itself, and not borrowed from any other—Sindī [*i.e.*, Sindhi], Lahōrī [Panjābī], Kashmīrī, the language of Dugar [Dōgrā of Jammu], Dhūr Samundar [Kanarese of Mysore], Tilang [Telugu], Gujarāt, Ma'bar [Tamil of the Coromandel Coast], Gaur [Northern Bengali], Bengālī, Audh [Eastern Hindi], Delhi and its environs [Western Hindi]. These are all languages of Hind, which from ancient times have been applied in every way to the common purposes of life.

Elsewhere³ he speaks of Hindi,—meaning by this term 'the language of Hind', or India (*i.e.*, probably Sanskrit), and not what we nowadays call by that name:—

If you ponder the matter well, you will not find the Hindi language inferior to the Pārsī [Persian]. It is inferior to the Arabic, which is the chief of all languages . . . Arabic, in speech, has a separate province, and no other language can combine with it. The Pārsī is deficient in its vocabulary, and cannot be tasted without Arabic condiments; as the latter is pure, and the former mixed, you might say that one was the soul, and the other the body. With the former nothing can enter into combination, but with the latter, every kind of thing. It is not proper to place the cornelian of Yemen on a level with the pearl of Dari.

The language of Hind is like the Arabic, inasmuch as neither admits of combination. If there is grammar and syntax in Arabic, there is not one letter less of them in the Hindi. If you ask whether there are the sciences of exposition and rhetoric, I answer that the Hindi is in no way deficient in these respects. Whoever possesses these three languages in his store, will know that I speak without error or exaggeration.

Here we learn much more than what we are told by Albirūnī. The latter writes as if one and the same spoken language was current over the whole of India, though, no doubt, he knew better. The other gives a fairly complete list of seven Indo-Aryan languages with two dialects, and of three of the principal Dravidian forms of speech.

Although he was not a foreigner, I may quote in this connexion the words of Abū'l Fazl in the 'Āin-i-Akbarī'⁴ upon the same subject, for, while he was an Indian born and bred, he did not look at matters from a Hindū point of view:—

Throughout the wide extent of Hindōstān, many are the dialects that are spoken, and the diversities of those that do not exclude a common inter-intelligibility are innumerable. Those forms of speech that are not understood one of another are the dialects of Delhi [Western Hindi], Bengal [Bengali], Multān [Lahndā], Mārwaṛ [Western Rājasthānī], Gujarāt [Gujarāṭī], Telingāna [Telugu], Marhattā [Marāṭhī], Karnāṭik [Kanarese], Sind [Sindhi], Afghān of Shāl [Paṣhtō], Beluchistan [Balōchi], and Kashmīr [Kāsmīrī].

¹ Sachau's translation, i, 18.

² Elliot, *op. cit.*, p. 556.

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³ Elliot, "History of India," iii, 562.

⁴ Jarrett's Translation, iii, p. 119.

Here we have a somewhat fuller catalogue, though some important names,—e.g. Tamil,—are omitted; but we see that they are bare lists and nothing more, and I know of no early oriental account of the languages themselves, either as a whole, or taken individually.¹

So far as I am aware, the earliest notice of the modern Indian languages that appeared in Europe was in Edward Terry's 'Voyage to the East Indies,' published in 1655 A.D. He there informs us² that 'the Vulgar Tongue of the Countrey of Indostan hath great Affinity with the Persian and Arabian Tongues, but is pleasanter and easier to pronounce. It is a fluent language, expressing many things in a few words.³ They write and read like us, viz., from the Left to the Right Hand.' Some of the English merchants of those days could certainly speak Hindōstānī with fluency,⁴ and Thomas Coryate, when presented to the Great Mogul by Sir Thomas Roe, is said to have addressed that potentate in a Persian speech. So, Fryer⁵ (1673) in his 'New Account of East India and Persia' says regarding India, 'The language at Court is *Persian*, that commonly spoken is *Indostan* (for which they have no proper character, the written language being called *Banyan*), which is a mixture of *Persian* and *Sclavonian*, as are all the dialects of India.'

Before Terry and Fryer, there had been descriptions of Nāgarī, the principal written character of Northern India. The celebrated traveller Pietro Della Valle⁶ describes it (1623) as 'an ancient character known to the learned, and used by the Brahmans, who, to distinguish it from the other vulgar characters, call it Nagheri.' Again, Father Heinrich Roth, who was a member of the Jesuits' College at Agra from 1653 to 1668, met Athanasius Kircher at Rome in 1664, and there gave him several specimens of the same character which the latter published in 1667 in his 'China Illustrata.' One of these was the Paternoster in Latin transliterated into Nāgarī. We shall see that for many years this was taken to be a specimen of actual Sanskrit.

¹ Before turning to European accounts of Indian languages, I may mention an amusing legend concerning another, and earlier, Linguistic Survey, current among the Afghāns, whose language, Paṣtō, is admitted to be inharmonious. It is said that King Solomon sent forth his Grand Vizier, Asaf, to collect specimens of all the languages spoken on the earth. The official returned with his task accomplished. In full darbār he recited passages in every tongue till he came to Paṣtō. Here he halted, and produced a pot in which he rattled a stone. 'That,' said he, 'is the nearest approach that I can make to the language of the Afghāns.' It is plain that even Solomon, with all his wisdom, had not, at the time, succeeded in anticipating the methods of Professor Daniel Jones and of the International Phonetic Association.

² Quoted from Ogilby's "Asia." See below. Much of what follows will also be found scattered through the different volumes of the Survey, or in other writings of mine. The various statements are here combined into one general view.

³ Hindōstānī had this undeserved reputation for many generations. There is a story of one of the first English Judges of the Calcutta High Court. In sentencing a man to death, he is said to have dwelt at length, in English, on the enormity of the offence, the unhappy feelings of the criminal's parents, and his certain fate in the next world unless he repented. When he had finished, he instructed the court interpreter to translate to the prisoner what he had said. This worthy's translation consisted of the six words, 'Jāō, badzāt, phāṣī kē hukm huā,' 'go, rascal, you are ordered to be hanged.' The Judge is said thereupon to have expressed his admiration at the wonderful conciseness of the Indian language.

⁴ "Hobson-Jobson," s.v. 'Hindustanee' gives the following anecdote of Tom Coryate taken from Terry. The occurrence is dated 1616. 'After this he [Coryate] got a great mastery in the Indostan, or more vulgar-language; there was a woman, a laundress, belonging to my Lord Ambassador's house, who had such a freedom and liberty of speech, that she would sometimes scold, brawl, and rail, from the sun-rising to the sun-set; one day he undertook her in her own language. And by eight of the clock he so silenced her, that she had not one word more to speak.'

⁵ Also from 'Hobson-Jobson,' l. c.

⁶ Viaggi, iii, 57. Quotation taken from Dalgado's *Glossário Luso-Asiático*, s. v. 'Devanagárico.'

We may now pass on to Ogilby's 'Asia.' Its full title is *Asia, the First Part, Being An accurate Description of PERSIA, and the several Provinces thereof. The Vast Empire of the Great Mogol, and other Parts of India and their Several Kingdoms and Regions with the Denominations and Descriptions of the Cities, Towns, and Places of Remark therein contain'd. The Various Customs, Habits, Religion and Languages of the Inhabitants. Their Political Governments and Way of Commerce, also The plants and animals peculiar to each Country. Collected and Translated from most Authentic Authors, and Augmented with later Observations; illustrated with Notes and Adorn'd with peculiar Maps, and proper Sculptures. By John Ogilby Esq.; His Majesty's Cosmographer, Geographick Printer, and Master of His Majesty's Revels in the Kingdom of Ireland. London, printed by the Author at his house in White-Friers. M. DC. LXXIII.* Although its author was the 'Uncle Ogleby' of Dryden's MacFlecnoe, and was also one of the victims of Pope's Dunciad, this many-sided man,—poet, translator of Virgil and of Homer, dramatist, as well as geographer,—contrived to fill his bulky work with an immense amount of various and curious information. He was acquainted (pp. 129-134) with the South Indian method of writing on palm-leaves by pressing in grooves with an iron stylus, which is the origin of the circular shape of the letters of the modern Oriyā and other southern alphabets. He then goes on,—

As to what concerns the Language of the *Indians*, it onely differs in general from the *Moors* and *Mahumetans*, but they have also several different Dialects amongst themselves. Amongst all their Languages, there is none which spreads it self more than the *Malayan*, (as shall be declared more at large), and therefore it will not be amiss in this place to render into *English* some of their chiefest words

According to *Delle Valle* all the Provinces in *India* have one and the same Language, though peculiar Letters; for notwithstanding that the Language or Speech is understood in divers Countreys, yet the characters are different.

The Learned sort, or *Brahmans*, have a Language and Letters by *Kircher*, called *Nagher*, which being accounted Sacred, is onely known to their Tribe or Family, and used amongst them as *Latine* amongst the Learned in *Europe*.

Their Characters are fair and large, taking up much room: They also differ much from the Letters us'd by the *Benjan* Merchants in *Surat*.

He then quotes Terry as above (p. 2), and goes on:—

In *India*, and the Countreys under the *Mogol's* Jurisdiction, the *Persian* Tongue is more common than the *Indian*, being generally spoken by the Nobility at Court, and used in all Publick Businesses and Writings, which cannot seem strange to any, considering the *Mogollean* Princes have their Extract from *Tartary* and *Samarcand*, whence the *Persian* Tongue was first brought.

The Vulgar *Mahumetans*, *Peruschi* tells us, speak the *Turkish* Tongue, but not so eloquently as the natural born *Turks*. Learned Persons, and *Mahumetan* Priests, speak the *Arabick*, in which the *Alcoran* and other books are written.

But no Language extends further, and is of greater use, than the *Malayan*, so called from the City *Malacka*, from whence it hath its Original. It is spoken in all the Isles lying in the Straights of *Sunda*, and through the adjacent Countrey; but especially us'd by Merchants.

Linschot tells us, That many People of divers Nations, which came to build the City, and settle in *Malacka*, made this peculiar Language of all the other *Indian* Tongues, consisting of the most pleasing Words, and neatest manner and way of speaking, of all other the Neighbouring People; which makes this Language to be the best and most eloquent of all *India*, and also the most useful, and easiest to learn: For there is not one Merchant which comes from the neighboring Countreys to Trade here, but learns this Tongue.

The extraordinary statement that Malay was the lingua franca of India, seems to have been widely current in Ogilby's time and long afterwards. The blunder is evidently due to confusion of the Dutch East Indies with India proper. Wilkins in his preface to Chamberlayne's 'Sylloge' (vide post) explained that he could not procure a version of the Lord's Prayer in the Bengali language, as that form of speech was becoming extinct (!) and was being superseded by Malay. He therefore, for Bengali, gave a Malay version written in a mangled form of the Bengali character. That this idea was widely spread is shown by the reproduction of the same Malay-Bengali specimen in Fritz's "Sprachmeister" written in 1748.

Passing over works such as Henricus van Rheede tot Drakenstein's 'Hortus Indicus Malabaricus' (1678) and Thomas Hyde's work on chess, the 'Historia Shahiludii' (1694), both of which contained specimens of the Nāgarī alphabet,

Andreas Müller.

we next come to Andreas Müller's collection of versions of the Lord's Prayer, written under the pseudonym of Thomas Ludekene and published in Berlin in 1680.¹ Its full title is *Oratio Orationum. S. s. Orationis Dominicae Versiones praeter authenticam fere centum, eaque longe emendatius quam antehac, et e probatissimis Autoribus potius quam prioribus Collectionibus, jamque singulā genuinis Linguā suā Characteribus, adeoque magnam Partem ex Aere ad Editionem a Barnimo Hagio traditae editaeque a Thoma Ludekenio, Solq. March. Berolini, ex Officina Rungiana, Anno 1680.* The Barnimus Hagius mentioned herein as the engraver is another pseudonym of Müller himself. In this collection Roth's Paternoster was reprinted as being actually Sanskrit, and not a mere transliteration of the Latin original.

Omitting more than a mention of isolated accounts of single Indian languages, such as the 'Lexicon Linguae Indostanicae' (1704) of the Capuchin Franciscus M. Turonensis, John Joshua Ketelaer's Grammar and Vocabulary of the Lingua Hindostanica (about 1715), and Ziegenbalg's (1716) and Beschi's (1728) Tamil Grammars, we come to

Chamberlayne's 'Sylloge.'

another important collection of versions of the Lord's Prayer (Amsterdam, 1715), the 'Sylloge' of John Chamberlayne, a Fellow of our Royal Society, with a preface by David Wilkins, the Coptic scholar, who was also actively associated in the work. For our present purposes, it is sufficient to remark that, while it supports the mistake about Malay being current in India, it again reproduces Roth's Paternoster, but without Müller's blunder about the language in which it was written being Sanskrit.

We may here anticipate chronological order by mentioning the last attempt at comparing languages solely by collecting versions of the Lord's

Fritz's 'Sprachmeister.'

Prayer. This was the 'Sprachmeister' of Johann Friedrich Fritz, published at Leipzig in 1748, with a preface by the celebrated Indian missionary Schultze. The title page runs as follows:—*Orientalisch- und Occidentalischer Sprachmeister, Welcher nicht allein hundert Alphabete nebst ihrer Aussprache, So bey denen meisten Europäisch-Asiatisch-Africanisch- und Americanischen Völkern und Nationen; gebräuchlich sind, Auch einigen Tabulis Polyglottis verschiedener Sprachen und Zahlen vor Augen leget, Sondern auch das Gehet des Herrn, In 200 Sprachen und Mund-Arten.*

¹ In those days such collections of the Lord's Prayer were very common. Fritz, in his 'Sprachmeister,' enumerates no less than fifty-five as made before 1748. They were the first beginnings of the study of comparative philology.

mit dererselben Characteren und Lesung, nach einer Geographischen Ordnung mittheilet. Aus glaubwürdigen Auctoribus zusammen getragen, und mit darzu nöthigen Kupfern versehen. Leipzig, zu finden bey Christian Friedrich Gessnern. 1748. Fritz's book is a long way ahead of its predecessor Chamberlayne's. It contains 172 pages of various alphabets, including many coming from India, 56 pages of tables showing the first ten numerals, and 128 pages, with numerous plates, of versions of the Lord's Prayer. The Indian alphabets explained are Bengali, Tamil, Burmese, Grantha, Telugu, Singhalese, and Nāgarī. The Indian versions are Latin (in the Nāgarī character), Sanskrit, Hindōstānī, Gujarātī, Marāṭhī, Kōṅkaṇī, Singhalese, Malay in the Bengali character (see above, p. 4), Tamil, Telugu, Kanarese, and Burmese. Of some of these several versions are given under variant names. As an Appendix, the author gives comparative tables of the words for 'father,' 'heaven,' 'earth,' and 'bread' in all these languages. For its time, the Sprachmeister is a very creditable piece of work, carried out in a really scientific spirit.

Maturin Veyssière LaCroze was born at Nantes in 1661, was appointed librarian to the Elector at Berlin in 1697, and died in that city in 1739.

LaCroze.

This remarkable scholar, amid his manifold activities, was a profound student of oriental lore, as it was then understood, and carried on a copious correspondence with most of the learned men of Europe. This correspondence was published in 1742-46 at Leipzig in three closely printed Latin volumes, and is still obtainable in the book-market. In the year 1714 Wilkins wrote to him asking for help in the preparation of Chamberlayne's 'Sylloge.' This request incited LaCroze to write a long communication¹ to Chamberlayne dealing with the general question of the study of languages, and vindicating comparative philology from the charge of inutility. He then proceeds briefly to describe the inter-relationship of the various languages known to him, and, coming to India, says, 'I have, however, little to offer concerning the alphabets of this country, except that they are derived from that called *Hanscrit*,² the source of the oldest forms of which is the [Semitic] alphabet of Persia or Assyria, and which is used by the Brachmans. From these Brachmans the other Indian tribes have imbibed their superstitions, and it was amongst them that Xaca,³ who laid the bonds of false religions on the peoples of the East, was himself brought up. Thus, the order of the alphabet is the same amongst the Brachmans, the people of Malabar, the Singhalese, Siamese, Javans, and even the language of Bali,⁴ which is the sacred tongue of Laos, Pegu, Cambodia, and Siam.'⁵ With a passing reference to the letters written to Ziegenbalg, of the Danish Mission at Tranquebar, who was LaCroze's chief source of information regarding the languages of southern India, we come to the latter's voluminous corre-

Bayer.

spondence with Theophilus Siegfried Bayer, then residing in Leipzig, and subsequently in Petrograd. The earlier letters

¹ Thesaurus Epistolicus LaCrozianus, iii, 78ff.

² The use of 'Hanscrit' for 'Sanskrit' is no doubt taken from Kircher's "China Illustrata," mentioned above (p. 2) where the word is so spelt. His theory connecting the earliest forms of the Indian alphabet with Assyrian (Assyrian cuneiform was of course unknown in those days, and he was not referring to it, but to some form of Phoenician) is a remarkable anticipation of the results of modern science. Later on he argues that the Indians have done just what the Greeks have done, in changing the Phoenician right to left direction of writing to left to right. When we remember that LaCroze had no Asōka inscriptions and no Moabite Stone to consult, and that his theory was not a guess, but was founded on argument, we must acknowledge the prophetic acuteness of the scientific vision of this great Frenchman.

³ i.e. Śakya, the Buddha.

⁴ The Siamese pronunciation of Pāli.

⁵ The foregoing passage is not a quotation, but is an abstract of LaCroze's remarks.

afford few points of interest to Indian students, as they deal chiefly with Tangut, Mongolian, and Chinese, although in March 1717,¹ there is an interesting passage at arms where Bayer attacks LaCroze's theory about the ultimate origin of the Brachmans' alphabet. In this earlier correspondence, the only Indian language that I find mentioned is Bengali,²—probably the first mention of that alphabet to be published in Europe.

The foundation of the Imperial Academy of Sciences of St. Petersburg, on the lines of the French Academy, were laid down by Peter the Great, and in 1725 it was formally opened by the Empress Catherine.

The most learned men of Europe,—including Bayer,—were invited to join it, and it was finally put on a permanent footing by Peter II. The first two volumes of the Transactions, relating to the year 1726, were published in 1728, and are now very rare, nearly the whole issue having been destroyed in a fire which consumed the Academy in 1741.

In 1727, Daniel Messerschmidt, who had been deputed by Peter the Great to explore Siberia, returned to Petrograd and, among other curiosities, brought with him an inscription and a Chinese printed book. These were made over to Bayer, and he describes them in the third and fourth volumes of the Transactions. The inscription consisted of two short lines, each in a different form of the Tibetan character. It is reproduced here.

तञ्जमतिनद्वनैद ॐ
॥ ॐ म र्मे प ड डु डु ॥

Bayer, with the aid of the book to be subsequently described and of his knowledge of Manchu, deciphered this as '*Ong ma ni pa dme ch³um chi*,' but was unable to discover its meaning. Messerschmidt, he says, told him that it was one of the commonest prayers of the Tunguts (*i.e.* Tibetans) and meant 'God have mercy on us.' This decipherment of the well-known Buddhist formula *Om, mani padmē, hum*, though its translation was incorrect, marks the first step in a new stage of the study of Indian languages in Europe. For the next few years European scholars attacked the languages of northern India through Chinese and Tibetan.

The other curiosity brought back by Messerschmidt,—a book consisting of eight leaves,—had been printed in China, and may be looked upon as the Rosetta stone of these explorers. It gave in parallel lines an entire syllabary of the Tibetan Lāntsha alphabet with a transliteration into ordinary Tibetan, and into a form of Manchu which Bayer called Mongolian. A facsimile of the first page and a half⁴ is given on the plate opposite.

¹ The. Ep. LaCr. i, 16.

² The. Ep. LaCr. i, 23; iii, 28.

³ Pronounced like the *ch* in 'loch.'

⁴ There were two lines to a page. But as three lines contain the complete alphabet of simple letters, I have followed Bayer in giving a page and a half on the plate.

Bayer's first procedure was to establish so far as was possible the Tibetan characters. This was an easy task, for the language was already partly known to him, and he had other Tibetan students and books at his command. Then, with the aid of this and other specimens, he established the Manchu transliteration, and finally from these two, he was able to make a very fair attempt at transliterating the Lāntsha, which is a kind of ornamental Nāgarī. In the plate I have given the transliteration fixed by him and used for deciphering the *Om, maṇi padmē, huṃ* of the inscription. It will be observed that the transcription is by no means faultless, though it is wonderful for so early an attempt.¹

Having thus made out the Lāntsha alphabet, Bayer sent a copy of it to Schultze, the missionary at Tranquebar, and was gratified to learn that the letters could be read by the Brahmins of northern India.²

Schultze.

Schultze, himself, to judge from the specimens he gives, cannot at that time have known Sanskrit, or, indeed, much of any Indo-Aryan language. He spells the name 'Benares' काशा or बनारसे and talks of आशरा: नावरी:. He, however, describes three alphabets and gives specimens of them,—the Nāgarī, the 'Balabandu,' and the 'Akār Nāgarī.' They had evidently been sent to Bayer just as they had been written down for Schultze, who could not read them. By 'Balabandu' he meant Marāṭhī, but the three alphabets are all merely Nāgarī written by different hands. Schultze also gives instructions for pronunciation. Some of them may be quoted³ :—

i breue, lingua ad dexteram inclinata.

ī longum, lingua ad sinistram mota.

u breue, recto ex ore protruditur.

ū longum, quasi duplex, sono in altum prolato.

dha [*i.e.* *ḍa*], *d* formatur lingua quasi apoplectica, vt salua ad palatum opem ferat, *h* admodum auditur; ceterum quasi aliquod *n* praemittitur, quod in primis sentitur, quoties vocalis praecedit, e.g. *ba-ndha*, legitur plane *ban-dha*.

Evidently our forefathers had the same difficulty with the cerebral letters that we have nowadays, and the 'lingua quasi apoplectica' is still a difficulty to many a griffin.

Bayer relates how a certain Calmuc Ambassador named Bordon, who was then in Petrograd, helped him to acquire this pronunciation, and concludes with a brief notice, received from India, of the Marāṭhī, Gujarātī, and 'Maura' languages. By the last named, he meant, I suppose, Urdū, which the English subsequently called 'Moors.' All this time he was conducting an active correspondence with LaCroze, in which not only does the Chinese book find due mention, but we meet one of the earliest attempts at genuine comparative philology in the modern sense of the term,—a comparison of the first four numerals in eight different languages.⁴ During the next ten years, the two friends now and then refer to Indian languages, and to the last LaCroze maintains the correctness of his theory of the Semitic origin of the Indian Alphabet.

All this time,—indeed since the 16th century,—Southern India had been the scene of the activities of Danish and Jesuit missionaries. Schultze has been already referred

¹ Professor Zachariae has drawn my attention to a still earlier account of this formula. It is given in p. 7 of Kircher's 'China Illustrata' (1667), and Kircher transliterates it '*O manipe mi huṃ*,' which he says means 'manipe salva nos.'

² 'Brahmanes extraneos et peregrinos.'

³ Commentarii Academiae Scientiarum Imperialis Petropolitanae, IV (1729), 293ff.

⁴ The. Ep. LaCr. i, 58.

to more than once, and if I do not do more than mention the names of such men as Beschi, the Englishman Thomas Estevão (Stephens) of Goa, or (of the Danish Mission at Tranquebar) Fabricius and Ziegenbalg, it is only because these great scholars are not properly connected with the subject under consideration,—the history of the general study of Indian languages. They wrote grammars and dictionaries or translated the scriptures each in or into one or more South Indian languages, but they had no connexion with the study of Indian languages as a whole.¹

Somewhat different is the case of the Roman Catholic Missionaries of Northern India.

Beligatti. The Capuchin Missionary Cassiano Beligatti wrote a treatise on the Nāgarī alphabet, entitled 'Alphabetum Brammhanicum seu Industanum Universitatis Kasī' (Rome, 1771). The book itself would not deserve mention here were it not accompanied by a preface from the pen of Johannes Christophorus Amadutius containing a very complete summary, with copious references to authorities, of the then existing knowledge regarding Indian languages. It correctly describes Sanskrit (written समसक्रीत) as the language of the learned, and next describes the बखा बोली or 'Beka Boli' (i.e., *Bhāṣā Bōlī*) or common tongue which is found in the 'University of Kasī or Benarès.' He adds that different regions and different languages have their own alphabets, and among the languages he enumerates (1) Bengalensis, (2) Tourutiana [i.e., Maithilī], (3) Nepalensis, (4) Marathica, (5) Peguana [i.e., Burmese or Mōn], (6) Singalaea, (7) Telugica, and (8) Tamulica. This book is of further interest because the Nāgarī and Kaithī characters are set up in moveable type,—the first to be used, I believe, for this purpose in Europe.

Two other later works may here be mentioned in order to wind up the first stage of Indian linguistic studies. The first is the 'Symphona
Abel's 'Symphona.' Symphona' of Ivarus Abel (1782). It is a comparative vocabulary of Tamil, Telugu, Sanskrit, Marāṭhī, Bālābanda (? also Marāṭhī), Kanarese, Hindōstānī, Kōṅkaṇī, Gujarātī, and Peguan (Burmese). Fifty-three words,—such as parts of the body, heaven, sun, certain animals, house, water, tree, the personal pronouns, the numerals, and so on,—are given in all these languages and compared together. The other is the anonymous 'Alphabeta Indica,' with a preface by Paulinus a S. Bartholomaeo² (Rome 1791). This is a collection of four Indian alphabets, all set up in moveable types. Finally, Adelung's "Mithridates" (1806 and following years) is a résumé of all the linguistic learning of the 18th century, and forms a link between the old philology and the new.

A consideration of this early stage of the enquiry into the languages of India will
Results of the old philology. show that during the 17th and 18th centuries there had been laborious accumulation of materials, but hardly any

¹ For the same reason, I make no mention of the first Sanskrit book translated into a European language. This was the "Open Door to Heathendom" by the Missionary Abraham Roger (1651). It was a translation into Dutch of the second and third Śātakas of Bhartṛihari.

² Paulinus a S. Bartholomaeo had in the previous year published a Sanskrit Grammar. Its full title was 'SIDHARVAM seu Grammatica Samscrdamica, cui accedit dissertatio historico-critica in linguam Samscrdamicam, vulgo Samscret dictam, in qua huius linguae existentia, origo, praestantia, antiquitas, extensio, maternitas ostenditur, libri aliqui ea exarati critice recensentur, et simul aliquae antiquissimae gentilium orationes liturgicae paucis attinguntur et explicantur auctore Fr. Paulino a S. Bartholomaeo, Carmelita excalceato, Malabarica Missionario. Romae 1790, 4 (ex typogr. S. Congr. de prop. fide).'

scientific study. Such study could not, indeed have been expected in those days. The necessary materials, though increasing gradually from decade to decade, were throughout too scanty for it to have been possible. Nevertheless the period was marked by a steady advance in knowledge beyond the older belief that all languages were derived from Hebrew. In the early years of the 17th century the existence in India of Sanskrit, the sacred literary language, became known, and from this, as a sort of corollary, there arose the belief that besides it there was in addition one general colloquial form of speech used by the vulgar over the whole continent. A further development of this belief was the curious error that that colloquial language was Malay, a kind of lingua franca, before which the indigenous speech was disappearing. It took many decades to wipe out this misapprehension and its consequences. The existence of more than one spoken language was the next discovery. This was first associated with collections of alphabets, apparently as mere curiosities and without any reference to the languages for which they were employed. But the knowledge thus gained of diverse alphabets led to a suspicion of the existence of diverse tongues, and this, in its turn, led to the making of collections of versions of the Lord's Prayer, at first full of blunders, but becoming more and more complete and more and more accurate as the years went on. These collections invited comparisons of their contents, and suggested the first beginnings of comparative philology. It is at this stage that the great names of LaCroze and Bayer come into prominence. They began to make rudimentary classifications of languages based on comparisons of the numerals and similar words, and succeeded in tracing the connexion between the alphabets of Tibet and India, a fact which was destined in later days to have a far-reaching importance. They got into communication with the great pioneer missionaries of Southern India, and, with their help, enriched the mass of materials available for study. In fact, as is shown by Amadutius's preface to Beligatti's '*Alphabetum Brammhanicum*', it was on their researches that all subsequent investigations of the period were founded; and it was by following their methods that Iwarus Abel and Adelung were able to make the great advance in scientific exploration that is associated with their names.

At the end of the period we find that Europe had a fairly clear idea of the names and general characters of the principal Indian languages, and that its scholars had begun to compare one with another. The old philology thus on its deathbed gave birth to the new. The materials for classification had been collected and set in order, but no general classification had yet been attempted.

Modern comparative philology dates from the introduction of Sanskrit as a serious object of study, and from the consequent recognition of the existence of an Indo-European family of languages by Sir William Jones in 1786. In his third Annual Discourse to the Asiatic Society [of Bengal], delivered in that year, he said¹ :—

Sir William Jones.

The *Mohammedans*, we know, heard the people of proper *Hindustan* or *India*, on a limited scale, speaking a *Bhāshā*, or living tongue, of a very singular construction, the purest dialect of which was current in the districts round *Agrā*, and chiefly on the poetical ground of *Mat'hurā*; and this is commonly called the idiom of *Vraja*. Five words in six, perhaps, of this language were derived from the *Sanskrit*, in which books of religion and science were composed, and which appears to have been formed by an exquisite grammatical arrangement, as the name itself implies, from some unpolished idiom; but the basis of the *Hindustāni*,

¹ Asiatic Researches, i. 422.

particularly the inflexions and regimen of verbs, differed as widely from both those tongues, as *Arabic* differs from *Persian*, or *German* from *Greek*. Now the general effect of conquest is to leave the current language of the conquered people unchanged, or very little altered, in its groundwork, but to blend with it a considerable number of exotic names both for things and actions; as it has happened in every country, that I can recollect, where the conquerors have not preserved their own tongue unmixed with that of the natives, like the *Turks* in *Greece*, and the *Saxons* in *Britain*; and this analogy might induce us to believe, that the pure *Hindî*, whether of *Tartarian* or *Chaldean* origin, was primeval in *Upper India*, into which the *Sanscrit* was introduced by conquerors from other kingdoms in some very remote age; for we cannot doubt that the language of the *Vêda's* was used in the great extent of country, which has before been delineated, as long as the religion of *Brahmâ* has prevailed in it.

The *Sanscrit* language, whatever be its antiquity, is of a wonderful structure; more perfect than the *Greek*, more copious than the *Latin* and more exquisitely refined than either; yet bearing to both of them a stronger affinity, both in the roots of verbs, and in the forms of grammar, than could possibly have been produced by accident; so strong, indeed, that no philologist could examine them all three, without believing them to have sprung from some common source, which, perhaps, no longer exists. There is a similar reason, though not quite so forcible, for supposing that both the *Gothick* and the *Celtick*, though blended with a very different idiom, had the same origin with the *Sanscrit*; and the old *Persian* might be added to the same family, if this were the place for discussing any question concerning the antiquities of *Persia*.

Here we have speculations not only as to the modern vernaculars of *India* (which are mainly erroneous), but also as to the connexion of *Sanskrit* with the languages of *Europe*. These latter speculations were converted into a scientific certainty by the labours of

Bopp.

Franz Bopp, whose first work,—*Ueber das Conjugations-system der Sanskritsprache in Vergleichung mit jenem der griechischen, lateinischen, persischen und germanischen Sprache*,—appeared in 1816, to be followed by his epoch-making *Comparative Grammar*, published in 1833 and the following years, and translated into English by E. B. Eastwick in 1865. The history of general Indo-European philology does not concern us here, and therefore, in order to carry this particular branch of learning down to our own times, I do no more than mention the names of Bopp's great successors,—Grimm, Pott, Schleicher, Whitney, Brugmann, Delbrück, Meillet, and Jespersen.

Returning to inquiries into the modern languages of *India*, we have seen that here too the problem was originally laid down by Sir William Jones, but accompanied by speculations which subsequent research has shown to be unfounded so far as the Indo-Aryan languages are concerned. Dravidian languages, as a distinct group, were then unknown, but if he had said about them what he did erroneously say about *Hindî*, he would not have been far from what are now believed to have been the actual facts. Anyhow, the problem, as laid down by him, was first taken up by the Serampore missionaries. William Carey landed in *India* in November

Carey and the modern vernaculars.

1793, and his translation of the New Testament into Bengali appeared in 1801. In the following year versions into other Indian languages were published; but in 1816 Carey found himself on the wrong track and reported to his home correspondents as follows:—

In the prosecution of it [sc. our object], we have found that our ideas relative to the number of languages which spring from the *Sanskrit* were far from being accurate. The fact is, that in this point of view, *India* is to-day almost an unexplored country. That eight or nine languages had sprung from that great philological root, the *Sanskrit*, we well knew. But we imagined that the *Tamul*, the *Kurnata*, the *Telinga*, the *Guzrattee*, the *Orissa*, the *Pengalee*, the *Mahratta*, the *Punjabee*, and the *Hindoostanee*, comprised nearly all the collateral branches springing from the *Sanskrit* language; and that all the rest were varieties of the *Hindee*, and some of them, indeed, little better than jargons capable of conveying ideas.

But although we entered on our work with these ideas, we were ultimately constrained to relinquish them. First, one language was found to differ widely from the Hindee in point of termination, then another, and in so great a degree, that the idea of their being dialects of the Hindee seemed scarcely tenable. Yet, while they were found to possess terminations for the nouns and verbs distinct from the Hindee, they were found as complete as the Hindee itself; and we at length perceived, that we might, with as much propriety term them dialects of the Mahratta or the Bengalee language, as of the Hindee. In fact, we have ascertained that there are more than twenty languages, composed, it is true, of nearly the same words and all equally related to the common parent, the Sungskrit, but each possessing a distinct set of terminations, and, therefore, having equal claims to the title of distinct cognate languages. Among these we number the Juypore, the Bruj, the Ooduy-pore, the Bikaneer, the Mooltaneer, the Marawar, the Maguda (or South Bahar), the Sindh, the Mythil, the Wuch, the Kutch, the Harutee, the Koshula, etc., languages, the very names of which have scarcely reached Europe, but which have been recognised as distinct languages by the natives of India almost from time immemorial.

That these languages, though differing from each other only in terminations and a few of the words that they contain, can scarcely be called dialects, will appear, if we reflect, that there is in India no general language current, of which they can be supposed to be dialects. The Sungskrit, the parent of them all, is at present the current language of no country, though spoken by the learned nearly throughout India. Its grammatical apparatus, too, the most copious and complex perhaps on earth, is totally unlike any of its various branches. To term them dialects of the Hindee is preposterous, when some of them, in their terminations, approach nearer the Bengalee than the Hindee, while others approach more nearly to the Mahratta. The fact is, indeed, that the latest and most exact researches have shown that the Hindee has no country which can exclusively claim it as its own. Being the language of the Musulman courts and camps, it is spoken in those cities and towns which have been formerly, or are now, the seat of Musulman princes; and in general by those Musulmans who attend on the persons of European gentlemen in almost every part of India. Hence, it is the language which most Europeans get an idea of before any other, and which indeed, in many instances, terminates their philological researches. These circumstances have led to the supposition, that it is the language of the greater part of Hindoostan; while the fact is, that it is not always understood by the common people at a distance of only twenty miles from the towns in which it is spoken. These speak their own vernacular language, in Bengal the Bengalee, and in other countries that which is appropriately the language of the country, which may account for a circumstance well known to those gentlemen who fill the judicial department, namely, that the publishing of the Honourable Company's Regulations in Hindoostanee has often been objected to, on the ground that in that language they would be unintelligible to the bulk of the people in the various provinces of Hindoostan. Had this idea been followed up, it might have led to the knowledge of the fact, that each of these various provinces has a language of its own, most of them nearly alike in the bulk of their words, but differing so widely in the grammatical terminations, as, when spoken, to be scarcely intelligible to their next neighbours.

The report (which is signed by W. Carey, J. Marshman, and W. Ward) goes on to give detailed proof of the foregoing remarks. Thirty-four specimens are given of thirty-three Indian languages. In each the specimen consists of the conjugated present and past tenses of the verb 'to be,' and of a version of the Lord's Prayer. Each specimen is taken up separately and, word by word, dissected, in order to show that it is not a specimen of a dialect, but of an independent language. The whole discussion is too long to quote, but it is very interesting reading, especially as it is the first attempt at a systematic survey of the languages of India. In this connexion, it is well to remember that its date is 1816, and that its authors were Carey, Marshman, and Ward. The languages considered are as follows (I give the original spelling):—Sungskrit, Bengalee, Hindee, Kashmeera, Dogura [*i.e.* Dogrī], Wuch [*i.e.* Lahndā], Sindh, Southern Sindh, Kutch, Goojuratee, Kunkuna, Punjabee or Shikh, Bikaneer, Marawar, Juya-poorā, Ooduya-poorā, Harutee, Maluwa, Bruj, Bundelkhund, Mahratta, Magudha or South Bahar, North Koshula [*i.e.* Awadhī], Mythilee, Nepal, Assam, Orissa or Ootkul, Telinga, Kurnata, Pushtoo or Affghan, Bulochee, Khassee, Burman.

This list is instructive in two points. In the first place it shows that the Dravidian languages—Tamil, Telugu, Kanarese, and so forth—were not yet recognized as a separate family. That had to await the acute discernment of Hodgson. Here they are looked upon as being just as much Sanskritic as Bengali or Hindi. The other point is that no distinction has been made between language and dialect. We find great languages,—like Burmese, Bengali, or Paṣṭō—side by side with forms of speech like Jaipuri and Hārautī, which are hardly separate dialects—certainly less so than the dialect of Somerset and that of Devonshire. This is due to the fact that, at least in Northern India, there is no word exactly corresponding to our ‘language,’ as distinct from ‘dialect.’ All that the average Indian recognizes is dialect. Unless taught by European methods, he has no word for denoting a group of cognate dialects under one general head. He has numerous (hundreds of) dialect names, just as we talk of the Somersetshire and Yorkshire dialects, but no word parallel to our general term, ‘English.’

With Carey’s report, further inquiry into the general relationship of the Aryan languages of India seems to have been dropped for a considerable period. The lately-formed Asiatic Society in Calcutta was too busy with the study of Sanskrit and Persian to trouble much about the modern vernaculars. Practical grammars of the more important languages were, it is true, compiled in plenty, but there was at first no co-ordinated inquiry into the subject as a whole. On the other hand, the non-Aryan languages at once received the attention of a number of distinguished scholars. The Indo-

Buchanan, Leyden, and
N. Brown.

Chinese tongues were the first to receive attention. In 1798 Dr. Francis Buchanan published in the Asiatic Researches (Vol. V.) a Comparative Vocabulary of some of the languages spoken in Burma, and three years later D. J. Leyden, in the tenth volume, wrote on the Language and Literature of the Indo-Chinese Nations. Again, in 1837, in Volume VI of the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, we have a comparison of the Indo-Chinese languages by Nathan Brown, who was also the author of other papers connected with the same subject which later appeared in the Journal of the American Oriental Society. In 1828 (Asiatic

B. H. Hodgson.

Researches, Vol. XVI) we first meet one name that overshadows all the rest,—that of Brian Houghton Hodgson,—as the author of an article on the Language, Literature, and Religion of the Bauddhas of Nepāl and Bhot (Tibet). This was followed by a long series of papers on the zoology and ethnology of Nepal, but, nineteen years afterwards, in 1847 (Journal A. S. B. Vol. XVI), he resumes his philological enquiries with a Comparative Vocabulary of the Sub-Himalayan dialects. Then followed a number of important papers, still classics, and still full of varied and accurate information regarding nearly every non-Aryan language of India and the neighbouring countries. Space will not allow me to give even a dry catalogue of the subjects which he adorned. Suffice it to say here that he gave comparative vocabularies of nearly all the Indo-Chinese languages spoken in India and the neighbouring countries, and of the Muṇḍā and of the Dravidian forms of speech. These he compared with many languages of Central Asia in the search of one common origin for the whole. So far as I am aware, he was the first Englishman to use the term ‘Dravidian’ for the languages of Central and Southern India, but he included under that term not only the Dravidian languages proper, but also those of an altogether different family,—the Muṇḍā. It is true that he failed to establish his favourite theory of a common origin for all the languages explored by him,—that is a matter still under inquiry, and on

which the opinions of scholars are still divided,—but this hardly diminishes the value of his writings, which contain a mass of evidence on the aboriginal languages of India that has never been superseded. Its hall-marks are the wide extent of area covered, clearness of arrangement, and accuracy of treatment. Hodgson's last paper on Indian languages, on the languages of the broken tribes of Nepal, appeared in 1858, in the twenty-seventh volume of the *Journal of the Society* with which he was so intimately connected, so that his literary activity covered just thirty years. Ten years later, in 1868, there

Hunter. appeared Hunter's "Comparative Dictionary of the languages of India and High Asia", which, with some additions, summarized the results of Hodgson's linguistic collections, and presented them in a form convenient to the student.

The earliest fruit of Hodgson's researches was Max Müller's Letter to the Chevalier Bunsen, published in 1854. In this Müller established, for the first time, the existence of the Muṇḍā¹ family of languages as an independent body of speech, apart from the Dravidian, and gave it a name. Two years later, in 1856, appeared what has ever since been the foundation of research into the tongues of Southern India, Bishop Caldwell's 'Comparative Grammar of the Dravidian or South-Indian Family of Languages.' Here, for the first time, a group of Indian languages was treated as a whole by a scholar who was practically familiar with its elements and at the same time a trained philologist.

The Indo-Chinese languages also continued to receive study. The indefatigable Logan published essay after essay in the "Journal of the Indian Archipelago," in which the languages of Burma and Assam were compared and analysed. Logan wanted the philological training possessed by Caldwell, and hence his work has not retained the same authority as that of the great bishop, but he made many shrewd suggestions as to the relationship existing between the languages with which he dealt, and these have been confirmed, or rediscovered (for his writings are hardly known at the present day), by subsequent inquirers. Forbes's

Forbes. posthumous 'Comparative Grammar of the Languages of Further India' (1881) is but a tantalizing fragment, and it fell to the late professor Ernst Kuhn to attack seriously one branch of the question and to put the philology of the languages of Further India upon a sound footing.

Kuhn. His *Beiträge zur Sprachenkunde Hinterindiens* in the 'Sitzungsberichte' of the Royal Bavarian Academy of Sciences (1889) has been the starting point for a number of younger students who are writing at the present

day, amongst whom special attention must be drawn to Pater W. Schmidt's brilliant work on 'Die Mon-Khmer-Völker' (1906). Pater Schmidt has here proved not only that the Mōn-Khmēr languages form a link between the Muṇḍā languages of India proper and the languages of Indonesia, —grouping the first two, with Khāsī and some other minor forms of speech, under the

¹ He gave it himself this name, and by a recognized convention among all scholars, a discoverer has the right of naming his discovery and of expecting that other scholars will employ that name, unless it is clearly proved to be wrong. So it is in Botany and in Zoology, and so it ought to be in Philology; but later writers transgressed against the comity of scholarship, and invented other names for the family, such as Kōl, or the absurd 'Kolarian,' a name not only liable to misinterpretation, but also based on an imaginary statement that the speakers hailed from Colar in Southern India, which has no foundation whatever in fact. Throughout the Survey, I therefore adhere to the name given to the family by its first discoverer. It may be added that this name was used in Sanskrit literature for the people who spoke these languages, centuries before Max Müller was born. See page 35, note⁴.

one name of the 'Austroasiatic' languages,—but has gone much further. He has shown that the languages of Indonesia, Melanesia, and Polynesia also form a group which he terms the 'Austronesic.' The Indonesian languages thus form a link between the Austroasiatic and the Austronesic languages, the whole forming one great linguistic family,—called the 'Austrie'—extending from the hills of Central India to Easter Island, off the coast of South America, and covering a wider area even than that of the Indo-European tongues.

Indo-Aryan languages also received attention in the Bengal Asiatic Society. The earlier contributions were grammars and vocabularies of particular languages or dialects, and do not immediately concern us, though mention must be made of the wonderful pioneer work done in this direction by Major Robert Leech. We owe to his indefatigable diligence and accurate observation quite an extraordinary number of vocabularies and grammars of hitherto untouched languages. Between 1838 and 1843 he gave us grammars of Brahūi, Balōchi, Pañjābi, Paṣṭo, Bundēli and Kāshmiri, besides vocabularies of Ōrmurī, Pashai, Laghmāni, Khōwār, Tirāhi, and Dīri. For some of these his work is still our only authority, for the languages are now either extinct or spoken in tracts not since visited by British officers. For others, his work was superseded only at the end of the nineteenth century.

It was in Bombay that the comparative study of the Indo-Aryan languages was resumed thirty-seven years after the publication of Carey's Report. We find the evidence of this in the fourth volume of the Journal of the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society. In the number for January 1853 Sir Thomas Erskine Perry, then Chief Justice of Bombay and President of the Society, published his paper 'On the Geographical Distribution of the principal Languages of India.' He divided the languages of India into two great classes,— 'the language of the intruding Arians, or Sanskritoid, in the North, and the language of a civilized race in the South of India, represented by its most cultivated branch, the Tamil.' The former he reckoned as seven in number, *viz.*, Hindi, Kāshmiri, Bengali, Gujarāti, Marāthi, Kōnkanī, and Oriyā, with ten dialects. Panjābi, Lahndā (called by him Multāni), Sindhi, and Mārwarī he looked upon as all dialects of Hindi. Maithili he classed as a dialect of Bengali. Since he wrote, it will be seen that many of the forms of speech that he looked upon as dialects have been raised to the dignity of being recognized as independent languages. The Southern languages he called 'Turanian or Tamiloid.' He did not seem to be aware of the term 'Dravidian' which was first used simultaneously in 1856 both by Hodgson and by Caldwell. Perry mentioned Telugu, Kanarese, Tamil, Malayālam, Tulu, and (with a query) Gōṇḍi. He gave brief descriptive accounts of the general characteristics of each language, and carefully indicated the habitat of each, the whole being illustrated by an excellent language map. It will be observed that he altogether ignored the Indo-Chinese languages, and that he made no mention of the Mundā languages, which were not identified by Max Müller till the following year. While Perry confined himself to the geographical distribution of the Indian languages, another Bombay scholar was studying the interaction between Indo-Aryan and Dravidian languages. The same volume of the Journal of the Bombay Branch of the R. A. S. contains J. Stevenson's *Comparative Vocabulary of the Non-Sanscrit Vocables of the Vernacular Languages of India*. Here the important question of the borrowing of Dravidian words by the different Indo-

Indo-Aryan Languages.

Leech.

Sir Erskine Perry.

Stevenson.

Aryan languages, and of its ethnical significance is treated for the first time, and with great acumen. It was inevitable that, at that stage of linguistic science, many of Stevenson's comparisons should be mistaken, but still the article remains a solid contribution to the general linguistic science of India.

On the other side of India, in 1867, John Beames, a young Indian Civilian of barely ten years' service, attracted attention by the publication of a little summary of what was then known about all the languages of the country in his 'Outlines of Indian Philology.' Five years later appeared the first volume of his well-known 'Comparative Grammar of the Aryan Languages of India.' The same year witnessed the publication of Dr. Hoernle's first essays in the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal on the same subject, which were followed in 1880 by his 'Grammar of Eastern Hindi compared with the other Gaudian Languages.' These two excellent works, each a masterpiece in its own way, have since been the twin foundation of all researches into the origin and mutual relationship of the languages of the Indo-Aryan family of speech.

All this time, for many decades, grammars and vocabularies of individual forms of Indian speech had been issuing in considerable numbers. For the better known languages, such as Hindostānī, Marāṭhī, or Bengali, they came out in scores, and it must be confessed that most of them were but labour wasted. Each writer copied his predecessor, according to his capacity, corrected a few mistakes or not, introduced a few more or not, and proclaimed a new gospel which was not new. Now and then a work of striking merit, such as Molesworth's Marāṭhī Dictionary, Trumpp's Sindhī or Kellogg's Hindi Grammar, appeared, but most of the rest were sorry stuff and were hardly wanted. The less-known languages, though equally important, were studiously left alone. Carey wrote his Pañjābī grammar in 1812, and, except for a brief sketch by Leech, it was forty years before anyone again attempted to describe in a formal manner the language of the Sikhs. But, if this was the case with languages whose speakers were numbered by millions, the state of affairs regarding the scores of minor languages spoken by thousands, the languages of the hill-tribes of Central India, of the Tibeto-Burmans of Eastern Bengal and Assam, was much worse. An enthusiast wrote a grammar or compiled a vocabulary here and there. Government encouraged its officers to make more, and a few did so,—excellent works in their way.

In 1874, Sir George Campbell, then Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, printed a set of vocabularies compiled by local officials, but, with this exception, very little was done. Even with the help of foreigners the work hardly progressed. The first serious grammar of Paṣṭō,—the language of Afghanistan,—was written by a Russian—Dorn—and up to quite lately, although numerous elementary grammars have been written by Englishmen, all the scientific study of this form of speech was carried on by French or Germans. Similarly, we owe the only existing grammar and vocabulary of Nēwāri, the principal language of Nepal, to another Russian. Examples of this kind might be multiplied, but, even with outside help, the total result was that our knowledge of these minor languages, a knowledge most important for the purposes of administration as well as in the interests of science, was scanty, unevenly distributed, and unequal. In fact, so late as the year 1878 no one had as yet made even a catalogue of all the

languages spoken in India, and the estimates of their number varied between 50 or 60 and 250. Dr. Cust made a brave attempt to put together such an inventory in that year, but his "Modern Languages of the East Indies" in spite of all the industrious learning and acumen of its author, was confessedly a compilation of existing materials, and these materials were equally confessedly imperfect. It was a tentative work, and was primarily intended to stimulate enquiry, not to close the subject.

Dr. Cust's work succeeded. It did stimulate enquiry. For the first time Government, as well as European scholars, were enabled to see what little had been done and how much remained to be done. People talked about it and wrote about it. It was finally discussed at the Oriental Congress held at Vienna in 1886, of which Dr. Cust was himself a member; and the

Vienna Congress of 1886. assembled scholars passed a resolution urging upon the Government of India to undertake 'a deliberate systematic survey of the languages of India.'¹ The proposal was favourably received, but the adoption of a detailed scheme was delayed at first on financial grounds. In the year 1894 the matter came within the region of practical politics, and the preliminary details came under discussion. The first question to be settled was the extent of the proposed survey. After consultation with the various local Governments, it was decided to exclude the

Linguistic Survey of India. Provinces of Madras and Burma and the States of Hyderabad and Mysore from its operations, so that these would cover, from the West to the East, Baluchistan, the North-West Frontier, Kashmir, the Punjab, the Bombay Presidency, Rajputana and Central India, the Central Provinces and Berar, the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, Bihar and Orissa, Bengal, and Assam,² then containing a population of about 224,000,000 out of the 294,000,000 of our Indian Empire.

Then, as to the nature of the Survey. After some discussion it was decided that it was primarily to be a collection of specimens, a standard passage was to be selected for purposes of comparison, and this was to be translated into every known dialect and sub-dialect spoken in the area covered by the operations. As this specimen would necessarily be in every case a translation and would, therefore, run the risk of being unidiomatic, a second specimen was also to be called for in each case, not a translation, but a piece of folklore or some other passage in narrative prose or verse, selected on the spot and taken down from the mouth of the speaker. Subsequently a third specimen was added to the scheme—a standard list of word and test sentences originally drawn up for the Bengal Asiatic Society in 1866³ by Sir George Campbell and already widely used in India. It was obviously desirable that, for purposes of comparison, this list should be retained in its entirety, and so it was done, but a few extra words were added. The foundation of the Survey is thus these three specimens,—the standard translation, the passage locally selected, and the list of words and sentences. It was then determined that the first specimen should be a version

¹ The resolution was proposed by Dr. Bühler and seconded by Professor Weber. Among its supporters by word or by letter were Messrs. Barth, Bendall, Cowell, Cust, Grierson, Hoernle, Max Müller. Sir Monier Monier-Williams. Messrs. Rost, Sayce, and Senart.

² I name the Provinces as they are divided nowadays. In 1894, Bihar and Orissa formed a part of Bengal. It may be added that, at the present time, a Linguistic Survey of Burma is in progress.

³ J. A. S. B. Vol. XXXV, Pt. ii, special number, pp. 201ff.

of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, with slight verbal alteration to avoid Indian prejudices, a passage which has been previously used and is admirably suited for such purposes.¹

This having been decided, I was entrusted with the task of collecting the specimens and of editing them for the press. With this object, the various local officers were instructed to render me the necessary assistance, and I should be ungrateful did I not cordially express my gratitude for the sympathetic and ungrudging help accorded by my brethren in the service of the Indian Governments and by many others, Europeans and Indians, missionaries and laymen.

Before getting the specimens, we had to find out what it was that we wanted specimens of, and the first thing to be done was to compile a list of all the varieties of speech then known to exist in the area under survey. Forms were sent out to each district officer and political agent with a request that he would fill in the name of every language spoken in his charge, together with the estimated number of speakers of each. The forms came back by degrees, and their contents, I must confess, rather appalled me. The total number of languages reported from the survey area was 231 and of dialects 774. Examination fortunately showed that some few names were returned over and over again from different provinces, and also that it was probable that in many cases the same form of speech was reported under different names. I may say that, now that the process of elimination has been completed, the number of languages spoken in that portion of the Indian Empire subjected to the Survey amounts to 179, and the number of dialects to 544, all of which are described in these volumes. For the whole Indian Empire, the Census of 1921 gives 188 languages,² the total number of dialects being unknown.

The preparation of these lists was no easy mechanical process,—the sort of thing that could be done by an intelligent clerk. I pass over the difficulties encountered in

Compilation of the Lists.

compiling the local lists into general lists, one for each province. Those who have had experience in putting together hundreds of returns from different sources will know its laborious character, and those who have not can imagine it. But great difficulty was often experienced in preparing the local returns that formed the materials on which I had to work. Each officer knew about the main language of his district, and, if he had been there some time, had probably a working acquaintance with it. But over and over again no one with any education knew anything about the little hole-in-the-corner forms of speech which were discovered as soon as search was instituted. Let me give one example. In one of the Himalayan districts, of which the main language was Aryan, a small colony was discovered which originally hailed from Tibet, and which retained its own language. No official knew it, and intercourse with them was conducted through the medium of a lingua franca. The district officer entered the name of this language in his return. This name was not one word, or two words. It was a solemn procession of weird monosyllables wandering right across a page. I could make nothing of it, nor could my Tibetan-knowing friends. It should be remembered that it was a foreign expression written

¹It contains the three personal pronouns, most of the cases found in the declension of nouns, and the present, past, and future tenses of the verb.

² These figures will no doubt be increased when the Survey now in progress in Burma is completed.

down in English letters as it sounded to the untrained ear of a person entirely unacquainted with it. All my endeavours to identify the name failed. At last I wrote to the district officer and asked him to make further inquiries. In reply it was explained that investigation had shown that the monosyllabic procession was not the name of any language, but was the local method of expressing in broken Tibetan 'I don't understand what you are driving at.'

Another difficulty was the finding of the local name of a dialect. Just as M. Jourdain did not know that he had been speaking prose all his life, so the average Indian villager does not know that he has been speaking anything with a name attached to it. He can always put a name to the dialect spoken by somebody fifty miles off, but, — as for his own dialect, — 'O, that has no name. It is simply correct language.' It thus happens that most dialect names are not those given by the speakers, but those given by their neighbours, and are not always complimentary. For instance, there is a well-known form of speech in the south of the Punjab called 'Jangali,' from its being spoken in the 'Jungle,' or unirrigated country bordering on Bikaner. But 'Jangali,' also means 'boorish' and local inquiries failed to find a single person who admitted that he spoke that language. 'O yes, we know Jangali very well,—you will find it a little further on,—not here.' You go a little further on and get the same reply, and pursue your will-o'-the-wisp till he lands you in the Rajputana desert, where there is no one to speak any language at all. These illustrations show the difficulties encountered by local officers in identifying dialects and naming them.

From the local lists received, as described above, provincial lists were compiled and printed. These did not profess to be accurate catalogues of the tongues of India. They claimed only to represent the then existing knowledge of the state of affairs as reported by officers with local experience, who did not pretend to be philological experts. As such, they formed the basis of the Survey operations. When the lists were printed, the dialects were divided into two main classes, distinguished by a difference of type, *viz.*, (1) those which were vernaculars of the localities from which they were reported, and (2) those which were spoken by foreigners in each locality. The latter were once for all excluded, and attention was thenceforth devoted only to the former.

Each district officer was now asked to provide a set of the three specimens of each language locally vernacular in his district. Careful instructions were given for the preparation of these specimens. It will be remembered that the first was to be a translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son. It was recognized that in many, nay, in most cases, the translators would not know English, and in order to assist them a volume of all the known versions of the parable in Indian languages was compiled with the help of the British and Foreign Bible Society, of local missionaries, and of one or two Government officers who were specially interested in the Survey. This collection, which was published in 1897, under the name of 'Specimen Translations in various Indian languages,' contained sixty-five versions, and, though primarily intended as a tool to aid the execution of the scheme, aroused some temporary interest among the scholars of Europe. For the Survey, it was anticipated that whoever might have to prepare a specimen, even if he did not know English, would find in this book at least one version from which he could make a translation; and this, in fact, was borne out by subsequent experience.

The second specimen, which was to be locally selected, presented no similar difficulties, but instructions were given that all specimens were to be written (*a*) in the vernacular character (if there was one) and (*b*) in the Roman character with a word for word interlinear translation. The second specimen was also to be furnished with a free translation into good English. As to the style of translation into the vernacular, local officers were told that the language of literature was always to be avoided. What was to be aimed at was the acquisition of specimens in the home language of each translator, whether it was looked upon as vulgar patois or not. For the third specimen, the standard list of words and sentences, blank books of forms were supplied, which needed only to be filled up.

As each provincial list of languages was completed, the circulars calling for specimens were issued. The latter began to arrive in 1897, and most of them were received by the end of 1900, though a few belated specimens continued to come at irregular intervals during the succeeding years. The editing and collating of the specimens began in 1898. The first rough work was done in India, but in 1899 I returned to England, where for some years I had the efficient aid of my Assistant Dr., now Professor, Konow of Christiania.

The editing of the specimens has been an interesting work, but it involved some unexpected difficulties. Before anything could be printed, a general scheme of classification had to be decided upon, and that on a very imperfect knowledge of the materials. As the work went on discoveries were made which rendered revisions of the classification necessary; and sometimes these were made too late, so that the materials have not always been arranged as, with further knowledge, I should like them to be arranged now. This was especially the case in regard to the Indo-Chinese languages, in which my Assistant and myself were often walking on ground which hitherto had been untrodden, and had to deal with languages for which no grammars or dictionaries existed. Here mistakes in classification were inevitable; but I am glad that I can think that none of first class importance were made, and that, on the whole, though I might now group a few individual languages differently from the manner in which they have been grouped in the published volumes of the Survey, my present knowledge would not lead me to make any substantial alteration.

I have never counted the total number of specimens received. They amount to several thousands, and it stands to reason that it was not possible to print them all. The surplusage was deliberately estimated for. It was calculated that the specimens would vary in value. Several would be received of each dialect. Some would be prepared carefully, others ignorantly, others carelessly. Many of them would come from the mouths of uneducated people, hardly able to grasp the idea of what was required. A mass from which to select was therefore a desideratum, and this, in most cases, was secured. It is only in the case of a few less-known dialects of the Himalaya and of the Assam frontier that single specimens were obtained. These were, in all cases, forms of speech which had never been recorded in writing before, and mistakes in recording them were to be expected. Thanks to the constant sympathy and ungrudging aid given by our frontier officers, — the most enthusiastic among my helpers, — many doubtful points were cleared up by correspondence, and I hope that in after years it will be found that these specimens are not very wrong. Absolutely accurate we cannot expect them to be.

To give an example of the difficulties experienced, I may mention that the correction of one specimen was delayed for over six months by a fall of snow in the Hindükush, which prevented the Political Agent at Chitral obtaining the services of the only getatable bilingual speaker of one of the Pāmīr dialects. Again, in the case of one of the Kāfir languages of the Hindükush, no one who spoke it could at first be got hold of. At length, after a long search, a shepherd of the desired nationality was enticed from his native fastness to Chitral. He was exceptionally stupid, probably very much frightened, and knew only his native language. A Bashgal Shekh was found who knew a little of it, and who also knew Chitrālī, with his aid the translation of the Parable was made through Bashgali and Chitrālī. Much accuracy could not be expected from the result; but, with care and the assistance of the local officers, a version was ultimately made, which, though it contained some passages that I have been unable to analyse completely, has very satisfactorily complied with the somewhat stringent philological tests to which it has been subjected.

This was by no means an isolated example. There were scores of languages for which no one could be found who knew any one of them and at the same time English. It might be thought, for instance, that our officials would be familiar with most of the languages spoken in the neighbourhood of the port of Chittagong. Yet there is an instance on record of a criminal case which was tried in the Chittagong Hill Tracts. One of the witnesses was a woman who knew only the Khami language. This was translated into Mrū, which was then translated into Arakanese, which was again translated into the local dialect of Bengali, from which version the Magistrate recorded the quadruply refracted evidence in English. This makes no reflection on the officer concerned. There are parts of India which seem to have had each a special Tower of Babel of its own. From the little Province of Assam, with its population of only about six and a half millions, — or a million less than that of London, — eighty-one Indian languages were returned at the Census of 1911, and it contained others that were not specifically returned. Mezzofanti himself, who spoke fifty-eight languages, would have been puzzled here.

As each dialect was examined, a specimen or specimens of it were selected for publication and made ready for the press. From the specimens a sketch of the grammatical and other peculiarities was prepared, and reference was made to any point worth noting about the speakers. Dialects were then grouped into languages, and for each language a somewhat elaborate introduction was provided, sketching the habitat and number of speakers; distinguishing the dialects and comparing their characteristics; giving, when known, the ancient history of the language, and defining its relationship to other members of the same family; describing briefly the salient points of the literature, when there was one; supplying a bibliography as full as we were able to make it; and concluding with a sketch of the grammar. The results are to be found in the volumes of the Survey, to which this is an Introduction.

Throughout the whole series of operations, one thing has been steadily borne in mind—that these results were not to be bundles of theories, but collections of facts. The languages had to be arranged in some order or other, and this necessitated grouping, and grouping necessitated the

The Survey a collection of facts not of theories.

adoption of theories as to relationship.¹ So much could not be helped; but beyond this every effort has been made to prevent the Survey becoming an encyclopædia of Indian philological science. That will, we may hope, follow when scholars more competent than the present writer have had time to digest the immense mass of ordered facts now placed at their disposal. Indeed, a beginning has already been made. Reference has already been made to Pater Schmidt's discoveries regarding the Austric languages, and it has been a legitimate source of gratification to me to observe the free use of the Survey which has been made by Monsieur Jules Bloch in his researches into Marāṭhī, by Professor Turner and Professor Sunīti Kumār Chatterji in their important studies in Gujarāṭī and Bengali, and by Dr. Paul Tedesco in his luminous essays on the history of Aryan languages. One interesting result of Pater Schmidt's inquiries may here be added, as it has a direct connexion with the Survey. The Muṇḍā languages, as we know, belong to Chota Nagpur and the centre of India. It is also a familiar fact that the languages spoken in the Himalaya, far to the north of these Muṇḍā languages, are Tibeto-Burman in character. But even here the Survey shows us that there is a line of peculiar forms of speech, extending from Darjiling to the Panjab, that show evident traces of a previously existing language of the Muṇḍā family, which has been overlaid, so to speak, by the Tibeto-Burman of the later immigrants. There is thus evidence to show the existence, at some very ancient time, of a common language of which traces are still visible from Kanawar in the Panjab down through Further India and across the Pacific Ocean as far as Easter Island and New Zealand. Philology is not to be confounded with Ethnology, and here we may leave these interesting facts in the hands of ethnologists for further examination.

In the course of the Survey, it has sometimes been difficult to decide where a given form of speech is to be looked upon as an independent language, or as a dialect of some other definite form of speech. 'Language' and 'dialect.' In practice it has been found that it is sometimes impossible to decide the question in a manner which will gain universal acceptance. The two words 'language' and 'dialect' are, in this respect, like 'mountain' and 'hill.' One has no hesitation in saying that, say, Everest is a mountain, and Holborn Hill, a hill, but between these two the dividing line cannot be accurately drawn. Moreover we often talk of the 'Darjiling Hills' which are over 7,500 feet high, while everyone calls Snowdon, with its poor 3,500 feet, a mountain. 'Language' and 'dialect' are often used in the same loose way. In common use we may say that, as a general rule, different dialects of the same language are sufficiently alike to be reasonably well understood by all whose native tongue is that language, while different languages are so unlike that special study is needed to enable one to understand a language that is not his own. This is the explanation of the Century Dictionary,² but the writer adds that 'this is not an essential difference,' and nowhere is this proviso more needed than in considering the Aryan languages of Northern India. There, mutual intelligibility cannot always be the deciding factor, for the consideration is obscured by the fact that between Bengal and the Panjab every individual

¹ Before the pages of the Survey could be put in type, it was necessary to draw up a skeleton scheme of the volumes of which it was to consist. This was done when I had a very indefinite idea of the extent of the work that lay before me, or of the number of dialects that would come under notice, and accounts for the unwieldy size of some of the volumes and for the inconvenient method of dividing some of them into two or more parts. Once the general plan of the arrangement of the volumes was laid down, it was unadvisable to alter its main outlines.

² S. v. 'Language.'

who has received the very slightest education is bilingual. In his own home, and in his own immediate surroundings he speaks a local idiom, but in his intercourse with strangers he employs or understands some form of that great *lingua franca*,—Hindī or Hindōstānī. Moreover, over the whole of this vast area,—including even Rajputana, Central India, and Gujarat,—the great mass of the vocabulary, including nearly all the words in common use, is, allowing for variations of pronunciation, the same. It is thus commonly said, and believed, that throughout the Gangetic Valley, between Bengal and the Panjab, there is one language, and one only, Hindī, with numerous local dialects. From one point of view this is correct, and cannot be denied. Hindī or Hindōstānī is everywhere the language of administration, and is the one medium of instruction in the rural schools. The people, as I have said, being bilingual, little or no inconvenience is caused in practice by the employment of the assumption, and no one in their senses would wish to complicate administration by the introduction of a confusion of tongues.

And yet, when these numerous so-called dialects of this 'Hindī' are examined by the philologist, and when he attempts to group and classify, he is at once confronted by radical differences of idiom and construction. Some of these dialects are as analytical as English,—others are as synthetic as German. Some have the simplest grammar, with every word-relationship indicated, not by declension or conjugation, but by the use of help-words; while others have grammars more complicated than that of Latin, with verbs that change their forms not only in agreement with the subject, but even with the object. To look upon all these as dialects of a single language is as philologically impossible, as it would be, say, to describe German as a dialect of English; and hence, in the Linguistic Survey, they have been sorted out, according to their grammatical systems, into three groups, each of which is given the dignity of a language,—Bihārī, Eastern Hindī, and Western Hindī. This division has not escaped criticism. For instance the writer of the Report on the Census of the United Provinces for 1921 says¹ that 'the difference between speaking to a villager of Gorakhpur [where the language is Bihārī] and to a jungleman of Jhansi [where the language is Western Hindī] is precisely the difference between speaking to a peasant of Devon and to a crofter of Aberdeen. If you are intelligible to the one you can with patience make yourself intelligible to the other.' I myself have never had an opportunity of personally comparing the dialects of Devon and of Aberdeen, but I would suggest that the true point of difference has been here missed. The question is not whether an educated third person can master the two dialects, but whether a Devon peasant suddenly transported to Aberdeen would be able to communicate with the surrounding crofters. I fear that a considerable amount of patience would have to be exercised in such a case before intercommunication could be established, and even then it would be helped out by idioms borrowed from the language of Uncle Toby's Army in Flanders.

This brings us back to the proviso stated by the writer in the Century Dictionary, to which I have already drawn attention. The differentiation of a language does not necessarily depend on non-intercommunicability with another form of speech. There are also other powerful factors to be considered, if we are to look at the subject from a scientific point of view. First and foremost, there is what I have already referred to,—grammatical structure. Our peasant of Gorakhpur may or may not be intelligible

¹ Report, Chapter IX, § 3.

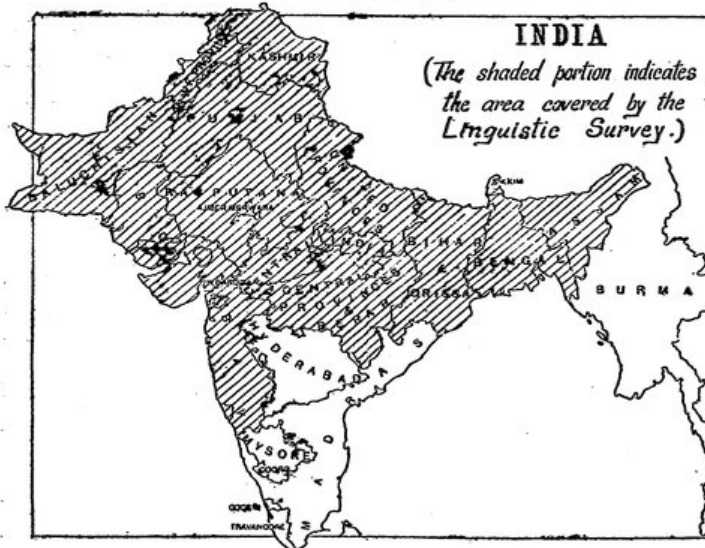
to the jungleman of Jhansi, but that does not do away with the fact that his language is highly synthetic, with a verb the conjugation of which is more complicated than that of Latin. The Jhansi jungleman, on the contrary uses a tongue with hardly any synthetic grammar at all. *His* verb has but one real tense, and two participles. All the other relations of time are indicated by the combination of these participles with help-words. The vocabulary of the two forms of speech may be very similar, but the whole grammatical structure of the one is radically different from that of the other. It is impossible, from the point of view of science, to group them together as dialects of a common language.

There is another factor which exercises influence in this differentiation. It is nationality. It is said that some English peasants would in Holland find little difficulty in making themselves understood, or in understanding what people say. Yet no one would deny that Dutch and English are distinct languages; and this factor is all the stronger when each nationality has developed an independent literature. There is an excellent illustration of this in Assamese. This form of speech is now admitted to be an independent language,—yet if merely its grammatical form and its vocabulary are considered, it would not be denied that it is a dialect of Bengali. It is certainly as closely related in these respects to the standard form of that language as is the dialect of Bengali spoken in Chittagong. Yet its claim to be considered as an independent language is incontestable. Not only is it the speech of an independent nation, with a history of its own, but it has a fine literature differing from that of Bengal both in its standard of speech, and in its nature and content. Here, therefore, we have an example of a language differentiated from its neighbours not by mutual unintelligibility but by nationality and literature.

GENERAL RESULTS OF THE SURVEY.

CHAPTER I.—INTRODUCTORY.

As already stated, this Linguistic Survey does not cover the whole of India. The
Extent of Survey.



The Provinces of Madras and Burma and the States of Hyderabad and Mysore were excluded from the sphere of its operations. The annexed map shows at a glance the areas included and excluded. The Survey gives estimates of the number of people speaking each language and dialect. It is to be regretted that these figures are ultimately based on the

Survey based on Census of 1891.

1891, but no other course was practicable. It will, however, be found that, allowing for the necessary ad-

justments and for the growth of population in the intervening thirty years, the totals for the various languages agree remarkably with those given in the Census of 1921. The reason for the adoption of the Census of 1891 as the basis of the Survey is that the latter began its operations in 1894. Generally speaking, except when special reasons suggest a contrary course, the linguistic tables of an Indian Census deal with languages only. They are not concerned with dialects. On the other hand, for the purposes of a Linguistic Survey, an exhaustive conspectus of all the dialects of each language examined forms a necessary part of its operations. As explained in the preceding chapter, the first thing done in this Survey was to obtain lists of dialects from each of the local areas with which it was concerned. They were furnished by the officers in charge of these areas in 1896 and the following years. Each local official had at hand the language totals of his District or State according to the Census of 1891. With the aid of his local knowledge, and as the result of local inquiries, he was able to state what dialects of each language were spoken in his charge, and how many speakers there were of each. The total for the dialects of each language had, of course, to agree with the then existing figures for the language under which they were grouped, and the figures for the dialects were in this way indirectly based upon the Census of 1891. It took nearly three years to correct and arrange the figures so obtained, and it would be a work of too great labour to do it all over again on the basis of a later Census. Only in the case of a few languages, principally those of the North-West Frontier, was it possible, for special reasons, to utilize the figures of the later Census of 1911.

The figures of the Census of 1921 deal with a population of 316 millions. The Survey figures deal only with 290 millions. The difference is mainly due to the large areas excluded from the Survey, but the growth of the population is also to be taken into account. In 1891 that population was 287¹ millions as against the 316 millions of 1921.

If we take the figures of the Survey as they stand, we find that 872 different languages and dialects are recorded. This is the number found in the list given in Appendix I, in which the figures for each are compared with those of the Census of 1921. But in this enumeration there is a good deal of double counting, as each language and each dialect is there given a separate number. A better idea of the results will be gained from the consideration that the Census of 1921 records 190, and the Survey records 179 languages, as distinct from dialects. When counting dialects, it must be borne in mind that, in order to make the total for the dialects tally with the number of the speakers of the language of which they form the members, it has been necessary to count the standard form of the language as one of the dialects. There are also, inevitably, cases in which a language has been returned, but its dialects not mentioned. For instance, the Khāsi language (No. 8 in the list) and its dialects are arranged as follows:—*Khāsi, Standard, Lyng-ngam, Synteng, Wār, Unspecified*. Here, if we count Khāsi in the list of languages, we must omit 'Standard' and 'Unspecified' in counting our list of dialects and languages, or we shall be recording the same form of speech twice, or perhaps three times, over. Hence, in the above example, we can count only three dialects as additional to the standard Khāsi language. On this principle, the 1921 Census has recorded 49 dialects in addition to the general language-names. The Survey, on the other hand, has recorded no less than 544 dialect-names in addition to the standard and unspecified forms of the 179 languages. The various forms of speech noted are therefore 237 (188+49) in the Census, and 723 (179+544) in the Survey. Each of these 723 is described in the Survey, in most cases with more or less complete grammatical accounts. A summary of the details² of these figures is as follows:—

	SURVEY FIGURES.		CENSUS FIGURES.	
	Languages.	Dialects.	Languages.	Dialects.
Indo-Nesian Languages	2	...
Austro-Asiatic Languages	7	14	16	11
<i>Mōn-Khmēr Branch</i>	1	3	10	...
<i>Mundā Branch</i>	6	11	6	11
Karen Languages	1	14
Man Languages	2	...
Siamese-Chinese Languages	3	4	7	...

¹ The Survey figures therefore exceed the Census figures of 1891 by three millions. The excess is due to the fact that, although a large part of India was excluded from the operations of the Survey, the latter also covered large tracts, especially on the North-West Frontier, to which that Census did not extend. For the excess areas, the figures of the 1911 Census have, so far as was possible, been adopted.

² The full details will be found in Appendix IA, pp. 411 ff.

	SURVEY FIGURES.		CENSUS FIGURES.	
	Languages.	Dialects.	Languages.	Dialects.
Tibeto-Burman Languages	113	82	117	15
<i>Tibeto-Himalayan Branch</i>	32	31	20	6
<i>North Assam Branch</i>	5	...	5	...
<i>Assam-Burmese Branch</i>	76	51	92	9
Dravidian Languages	16	23	15	...
Aryan Languages	38	402	26	9
<i>Eranian Branch</i>	8	35	3	1
<i>Dardic Branch</i>	13	22	4	...
<i>Indo-Aryan Branch</i>	17	345	19	8
Sanskrit	1	...
Outer Sub-Branch	7	110	8	3
Mediate Sub-Branch	1	18	1	...
Inner Sub-Branch	9	217	9	5
Unclassed Languages	2	19	2	...
TOTAL	179	544	188	49

It will be noticed that the Sub-Family that contains the greatest number of languages is the Tibeto-Burman. The words in these languages are all either monosyllables, or are built up on a monosyllabic basis, and are hence peculiarly liable to change. Moreover, so far as the area covered by the Survey is concerned, the speakers of the languages of this Sub-Family all live in mountainous districts. As a rule each tribe is separated from its neighbours, and languages thus quickly split up into dialects, and each dialect easily develops into a distinct language. In this way, while the number of languages is great, the number of speakers of each, averaging about 17,000, is small.

On the other hand, while there are only 17 Indo-Aryan languages, the number of their speakers is 226 millions, spread over the plains and hills of Northern India. Here numbers, nationality, and habitat have combined to produce no less than 345 dialects in addition to the 17 standard languages. In this respect, the contrast between the Tibeto-Burman and the Aryan languages is marked. The monosyllabic Tibeto-Burman speech easily divides and subdivides into numerous distinct and mutually unintelligible languages. If, as an example of similarly circumstanced Aryan forms, we take the Eranian languages spoken in and near India and the Dardic languages, we find that the two branches, like the Tibeto-Burman languages, are spoken in inhospitable mountain tracts, but that they persist. If they do sub-divide, the division is not into mutually unintelligible languages, but into mutually intelligible dialects, held together by a common grammatical basis. Their

synthetic character preserves each as a constant whole, and even in their rugged habitats they are only 21 in number spread over a tract extending from Kashmir to the Persian frontier and from the Pāmirs to the Arabian Sea. In northern India, where there are fewer hilly tracts to isolate the speakers, the Indo-Aryan languages are still less in number; and, though the dialects are many, the relationship of each to one or other of the great parent languages is apparent to the most casual observer.

It has been already stated that the Survey deals with the languages spoken by about 290 millions of people. The following is a summary of the number of speakers for each linguistic family :—

	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS.	
	According to the Linguistic Survey.	According to the Census of 1921.
Austrian Family	3,052,046	4,529,351
Man Family	591
Karen Family	1,114,026
Tibeto-Chinese Family	1,984,512	12,885,346
Dravidian Family	53,073,261	64,128,052
Indo-European Family	231,874,403	232,852,817
Unclassed	101,671	15,598
TOTAL	290,085,893	315,525,781

As previously explained, the difference between the two totals is mainly due to the fact that the area covered by the Survey was not the same as that covered by the Census. A more detailed summary will be found in Appendix IB (pp. 418 ff.), and the complete figures for each language are given in Appendix I (pp. 389 ff.).¹ Roughly speaking, the total number of speakers whose languages were surveyed corresponded to three-quarters of the entire population of Europe. Of these, the speakers of the Austrian languages were about equal to the population of Denmark, those of the Tibeto-Burman languages to half that of Switzerland, those of the Dravidian languages to more than the combined populations of the United Kingdom and Canada, while the speakers of the Indo-European languages about equalled the combined populations of the United Kingdom, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Germany, Austria, France, Spain, Italy and Greece.

Nowhere are there presented stronger warnings against basing ethnological theories on linguistic facts than in India. There are many instances of tribes which have in historic times abandoned one language and taken to another. A striking example is afforded by the tribe of Nāhāls in the Central Provinces. These people appear to have originally spoken a Muṇḍā language

¹ In Appendix I it will be noticed that many of the figures are given in round numbers. In such cases it is to be understood that the figures are estimates, and are not based on actual counting. These estimates were in every case made by officials with local experience, and, except where the reverse is stated, may be received as trustworthy.

akin to Kūrkū. It came under Dravidian influence, and has become a mixed form of speech, half Muṇḍā and half Dravidian. This, in its turn, has fallen under the spell of Aryan tongues, and is now in a fair way to becoming an Aryan language.¹ If we were to judge by language, a hundred years ago we should have called the tribe Muṇḍā. Ten years ago it was quite possible to claim it as Dravidian, and fifty years hence it would probably be described as an Aryan caste. The 'unholy alliance' between the two sciences has long been condemned, and has now fallen into disrepute, and I have hence, in the following pages, refrained so far as was possible from discussing questions of racial origin. When I have done so, it has only been to bring forward theories regarding the origin of nationalities which have been previously suggested by professed ethnologists, and to attempt to throw light on them when they are confirmed by philology. In one case only is it sometimes permissible to draw inferences as to race from the facts presented by language. When we find a small tribe clinging to a dying language, surrounded by a dominant language which has superseded the neighbouring forms of speech, and which is superseding its tongue too, we are generally entitled to assume that the dying language is the original tribal one, and that it gives a clue to the latter's racial affinities. Take as an example the Malto spoken by the hillmen of Rajmahal. This language is decadent, and is surrounded by others which are superseding it. Even if we did not know it on other grounds, we should be justified in asserting that its speakers are Dravidian, because their tongue falls within that family. But even this relaxation of the general rule, which was first suggested to me by Sir Herbert Risley, must, as the case of the Nahāls shows, be exercised with caution. The Nahāls are probably Muṇḍā by race, but their present speech is almost Dravidian. Their decadent language is a twofold palimpsest. It first began to be superseded by Dravidian, and now it is being superseded by Aryan. A careless application of Sir Herbert's theory would compel us at the present day to assume that the tribe was of mixed Muṇḍā and Dravidian origin. With a dominant language we can make no such relaxation. In India, the Indo-Aryan languages,—the tongues of civilization and of the caste system with all the power and superiority which that system confers upon those who live under its sway,—are continually superseding what may, for shortness, be called the aboriginal languages such as those belonging to the Dravidian, the Muṇḍā, and the Tibeto-Burman families. We cannot say that a Tibeto-Burman Kōch or a Dravidian Gōṇḍ is an Indo-Aryan, because he speaks, as he often does, an Indo-Aryan language. The language of the Brāhūis of Baluchistan is Dravidian, but many of the tribe speak the Eranian Balōchī in their own homes, and, on the other side of India, some of the tribe of Khariās speak a Muṇḍā, others a Dravidian language, and others, again, the Indo-Aryan Bengali. It may be added that nowhere do we see the reverse process of a non-Aryan language superseding an Aryan. It is even rare for one Aryan-speaking nationality to abandon its language in favour of another Aryan tongue. We continually find tracts of country on the borderland between two languages, which are inhabited by both communities, living side by side and each speaking its own language. In some localities, such as the District of Malda in Bengal, the Survey actually found villages in which three languages were spoken, and in which the various tribes had evolved a kind of *lingua franca* to facilitate intercommunication, while each adhered to its own tongue for conversation amongst its fellows. The only exception to this general rule about the non-interchangeability of Indo-Aryan languages

¹ See Vol. IV, pp. 9, 185.

is caused by religion. Islām has carried Ūrdū far and wide, and even in Bengal and Orissa we find Musalmān natives of the country whose vernacular is not that of their compatriots but is an attempt (often a bad one) to reproduce the idiom of Delhi and Lucknow.

This brings us to the question of tribal dialects, a subject that has not hitherto received the attention which it deserves. The matter is complicated by the fact that very frequently a tribe gives its name to a language, not because it is specially the language of the tribe, but because the tribe is an important one in the area in which it is spoken. Take, for example, the language which in the Census of 1891 was called 'Jatki,' i.e. 'the language of the Jatt tribe.' But Jatki is not by any means the language of the Jatt tribe alone. It is the language of the whole Western Panjab, in parts of which, it is true, Jatts preponderate. The name Jatki is hence misleading (the more so, because the Jatts of the Eastern Panjab do not speak 'Jatki') and has been abandoned in the Survey for the more tenable 'Western Panjābī' or 'Lahndā'. So again, in the hills north and east of Murree there are a number of dialects varying according to locality. One of the important tribes living in these hills is the Chibh, and these Chibhs everywhere speak the dialect of the different places where they live. But the question-begging name of 'Chibhālī' or 'the language of the Chibhs' was invented, and employed to mean 'the dialect of the hills north and east of Murree,' whereas, there are several dialects spoken by Chibhs, and, moreover, the Chibhs are by no means the only people who speak them.

Another group of tribal tongues are those which are classed in the Survey as Gipsy languages. They are the speeches of wandering clans who employ, mainly for professional purposes, dialects different from that of the tract over which they may possibly have wandered for generations. These tribal tongues may be real languages, or they may be argots in which local words are distorted into a slang like what we find in the 'Latin' patter of London thieves.

Finally, there is another class of tribal dialects in which we find the tongue of a clan which has migrated to some new seat and has gradually developed a new language, based on that of its former home, but corrupted and mixed with that of the people amongst whom its new lot is cast. It is evident that if part of a Rajputana tribe migrates to a country of which Bundēlī is the vernacular, while another wends its way to a district in which Marāṭhī is spoken, the resultant languages spoken by the two groups of the same tribe will be very different, although both are based on Rājasthānī. Such has actually occurred in several instances in the Central Provinces, and there are also in other parts of India many cases of immigrant tribes which have preserved their original languages in more or less corrupted forms. Perhaps the most striking example is a colony of speakers of corrupt Sindhī, who live in the upper Gangetic Doab.

The identification of the boundaries of a language, or even of a language itself, is not always an easy matter. As a rule, unless they are separated by great ethnic differences, or by some natural obstacle, such as a range of mountains or a large river,¹ Indian languages gradually

¹ As Sir Aurel Stein has pointed out, defiles in valleys often form more important ethnic and political boundaries than watersheds, when these are crossed by relatively easy passes and routes. This is true also of languages. A mountain range is by no means so impassable to a language, as a difficult river gorge. It is the defiles, not the mountain ranges, that are responsible for the variety of languages in the Pāmirs. See my *Iskākāshmi, Zōbaki, and Yāzghulāmi*, p. 4.

merge into each other and are not separated by hard and fast boundary lines. When such boundaries are spoken of, or are shown on a map, they must always be understood as conventional methods of showing definitely a state of things which is in its essence indefinite. It must be remembered that on each side of the conventional line there is a border tract of greater or less extent, the language of which may be classed at will with one or other. Here we often find that two different observers report different conditions as existing in one and the same area, and both may be right. For instance, in 1911, the then Census placed the north-western frontier of Bengali some twenty or thirty miles to the east of that fixed by the Linguistic Survey and I no more maintain that the Survey figures are right than that the Census figures are wrong. From one point of view both are right, and from another both are wrong. It is a mere question of personal equation. When there is such a debatable ground between two languages, I find from experience that as a rule a speaker of one of these languages classes the speech of the debatable ground as belonging to the other. He naturally seizes on the points strange to him, and neglects forms with which he is familiar. For instance, near Bhaṭnēr there is spoken a mixture of Pañjābī and Rājasthānī. The Pañjābīs say that it is Rājasthānī, but the Rajputs say that it is Pañjābī. Another example turned up in the preparation of the Survey itself. While I was working at Eastern Hindi Dr. (now Professor) Sten Konow was simultaneously working at Marāṭhī. Each working independently, we finally met at the junction point where the curious mixed dialect called Hal'bi is spoken. From the point of view of Eastern Hindi, I considered that it was a form of Marāṭhī. On the other hand, Dr. Konow, looking at it through Marāṭhī spectacles, maintained that it was a form of Eastern Hindi. As the last word remained with me, the dialect appeared in the Marāṭhī volume of the Survey, but if it had been put into the volume for Eastern Hindi, I could not have said that it was wrongly placed.

In the following account of the results of the Survey, I shall, for the sake of completeness, refer also briefly to languages of India that have not fallen within its scope. These are mainly the languages of Burma and of the Deccan. Of the former, a separate Survey is now in progress, and it is far from my purpose to attempt to indicate its results. But the languages of Burma are intimately linked with those of Tibet and North-Eastern India, and it would be manifestly improper to leave them altogether out of consideration. The speeches of the Deccan are Dravidian and, similarly, they have congeners in northern India, and demand more than a passing reference. I shall deal first with the languages of the Austric family, as they are probably the earliest forms of speech that have survived to the present day. Then I shall deal with those that came probably later into the country,—the Dravidian and the Indo-Chinese,—and finally with the tongues of Aryan origin, concerning the entry of which into India we can speak with some certainty.

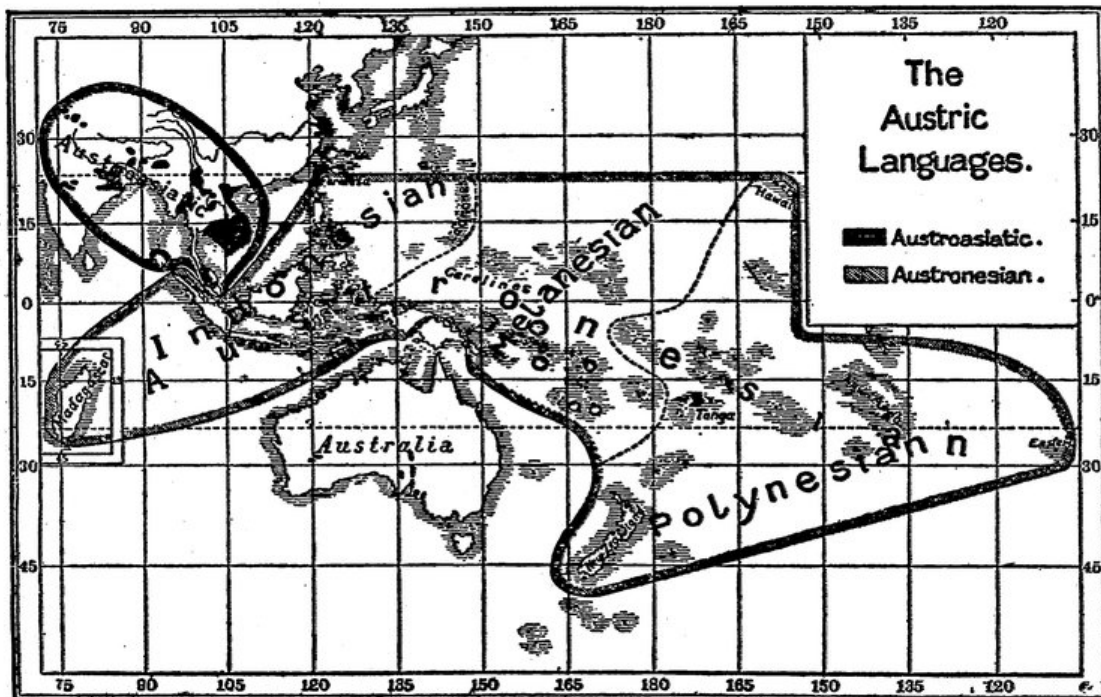
CHAPTER II.—THE AUSTRIC FAMILY.

In the year 1906 there appeared in Brunswick a little book by Pater W. Schmidt entitled 'Die Mon-Khmer-Völker, ein Bindeglied zwischen Völkern Zentralasiens und Austro-nesiens' which at once attracted the attention of students of language and of ethnology. The author's researches into the languages known as Mōn, Khmēr, and Khāsi had already established his reputation as a skilled and, at the same time, as a sober philologist, and in this work new and far-reaching views, based on solid and wide learning, were enunciated. These views up to the present time have not been seriously challenged.

The Austric Family.

Pater Schmidt here proved the existence of a great family of languages hitherto not recognized, which, although the languages composing it are spoken by a comparatively small number of people, is spread over an area wider than that occupied by any other group of tongues. Its speakers are found scattered over Nearer and Further India, and form the native population of Indonesia, Melanesia, and Polynesia, including Madagascar and New Zealand. It extends from Madagascar, off the coast of Africa, to Easter Island which is less than forty degrees from the coast of South America. In the North, traces of it were discovered in Kanāwar in the Panjāb, and its southern limit included New Zealand. West of Easter Island it covers the whole Pacific Ocean, except Australia (including Tasmania) and a part of New Guinea.

This 'Austric Family,' as he named it, he divided into two sub-families, the 'Austro-Nesian' and the 'Austro-Asiatic.' The former included the languages of Madagascar, Indonesia, and the islands of the Pacific, while the latter included languages scattered over Nearer and Further India. The annexed map, based on that in Pater Schmidt's work, shows their respective localities.



The only Austro-Nesian languages politically connected with India are Salôn, spoken by a tribe of sea-gipsies inhabiting the islands of the Mergui Archipelago and the adjacent parts of the Malay Peninsula and Malay spoken in the same locality. These languages consequently did not fall within the sphere of operations of the Survey, but on the margin will be found the number of speakers recorded in the Census of 1921.

Austro-Nesian.
Salôn.

Number of speakers in 1921.

Salôn	1,951
Malay	3,610
TOTAL	5,561

The Austro-Asiatic sub-family is much more strongly represented in India. There is first the great Mōn-Khmēr Branch spoken in Further India, of which we have three representatives in Burma, in the shape of Mōn, an ancient literary language now spoken in Thaton and Amherst, and Palaung and Wa, less civilized languages spoken in

Austro-Asiatic languages.

	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Mōn	...	189,263
Palaung-Wa	...	147,889
Nicobarese	...	8,662
Khāsi	177,293	204,103
Mundā Branch	2,874,753	3,973,873
TOTAL	3,052,046	4,523,790

Upper Burma. Khmēr and a number of other minor forms of speech belong to Indo-China, beyond the Burma frontier. Among the latter, mention may be made of two languages spoken by wild tribes of Malacca, the Sakei and the Semang. Like Khmēr these are spoken outside the limits of British India. Nicobarese also belongs to this branch, and seems to form a connecting link between the Mundā languages and Mōn.

None of the above languages fell within the operations of the Survey, but going north we come to Khāsi, a Mōn-Khmēr language spoken in the Khasi and Jaintia Hills of Assam. This was fully dealt with in the Survey. Its standard dialect has been often described, and moreover possesses a small literature with which it has been endowed by the local missionaries. Khāsi is more or less isolated alike from its cousins of Burma and from those of India, and has struck out on somewhat independent lines apart from Mōn, Nicobarese, and Mundā, which are mutually more closely connected than any of them is with Khāsi. With its three dialects of Lyng-ngam, Synteng, and Wār, in addition to the standard form of

Khāsi.

Khāsi.

	Survey figures.
Standard	113,190
Lyng-ngam	1,850
Synteng	51,740
Wār	7,000
Unspecified	3,513
TOTAL	177,293

speech, Khāsi forms an island of Mōn-Khmēr speech, left untouched in the midst of an ocean of Tibeto-Burman languages. Logan was the first to suggest, and Kuhn subsequently showed conclusively, that it and the Mōn languages belong to a common stock. The resemblances in the vocabularies of Khāsi and of the dialects of the Palaung-Wa group settle the question. But the resemblance is not only one of vocabulary. The construction of the Mōn and of the Khāsi sentence is the same. The various component parts are put in the same order, and the order of thought of the speakers is thus shown to be the same. Like Mōn and other members of the branch, and unlike the other Indo-Chinese languages by which it is surrounded, Khāsi has no tones.¹ On the other

¹ In Volume II, page 7 of the Survey, I have stated that Khāsi, there spelt 'Khassi' possesses tones, but this was a mistake due to the fact that at the time we possessed no satisfactory definition of what a tone is. Many words in Khāsi do end in a glottal check, and such a glottal check is called 'the abrupt tone' or 'the entering tone' in other Indo-Chinese languages. But this glottal check is, properly, not a tone at all. The word 'tone' should be confined to indicating the pitch or the change of pitch of the voice, and has no reference to the abruptness or otherwise with which a word is uttered. All the Austro-Asiatic languages, including Khāsi, employ this glottal check, but it is a distinguishing characteristic of all of them that none employs the true tones which indicate the meaning of a word by pitch or change of pitch. See J. R. A. S. 1920, page 459.

hand, it differs from the other Mōn-Khmēr languages in possessing the so-called articles, which are wanting in other members of the branch, and in having grammatical gender. Here we must leave the matter in the hands of the ethnologists. It will be interesting to see if any connexion of tribal customs can be traced, and if the Mōns or Palaungs still retain survivals of the matriarchal state of society which is so characteristic of the Khāsis. The Palaungs, at any rate, trace their origin to a princess, and not to a prince.

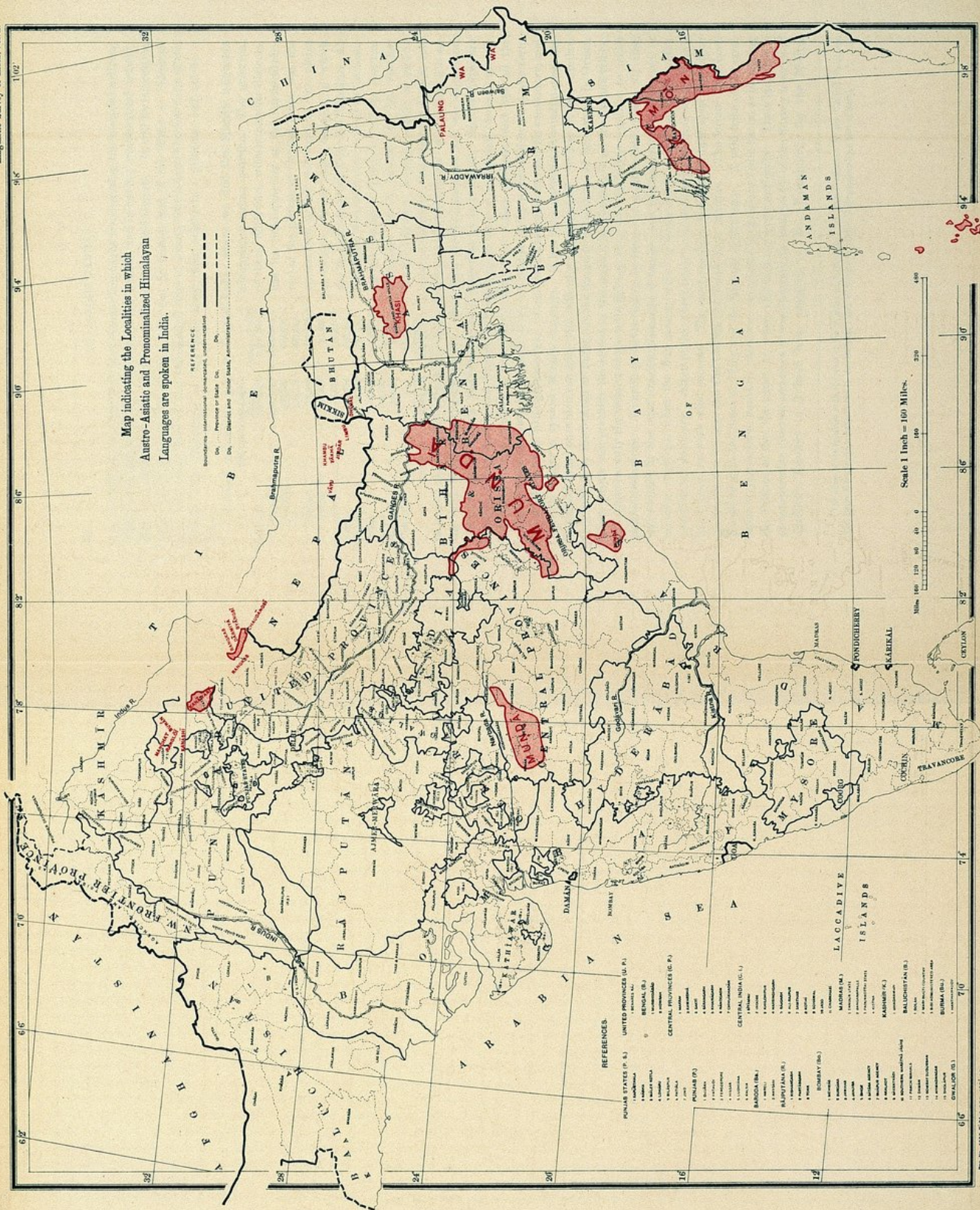
Mundā Languages.		Survey.	Census of 1921.
Khērwarī		2,537,328	3,503,215
<i>Santālī</i>		1,614,822	2,233,573
<i>Mundārī</i>		406,524	624,506
<i>Hō</i>		383,126	447,862
<i>Bhumij</i>		79,078	137,309
<i>Korwā</i>		20,227	21,655
<i>Others</i>		33,551	38,310
Kūrkū		111,684	120,893
Khariā		72,172	137,476
Juāṅg		15,697	10,531
Savara		102,039	168,441
Gadabā		35,833	33,066
Unspecified	251
TOTAL		2,874,753	3,973,873

occupying a strong position. The principal of these, Khērwarī, with numerous dialects, has its head-quarters at the north-eastern end of the plateau of Central India, but has spread into, or left survivors in, the plains at its foot. It has many dialects, of which the best known are Santālī and Mundārī. At the other, the north-west, end of the plateau, in the western Districts of the Central Provinces and in Mewar, we find another Mundā language, Kūrkū,¹ which is said to have two dialects,—Muwāsī and Nahālī, but, as stated above (p. 28), the latter is much mixed with other forms of speech and is on the verge of disappearing altogether. The other Mundā languages are less important. They are spoken in the neighbourhood of Khērwarī or to its South. The principal are Khariā, Juāṅg, Savara, and Gadabā, and they are all more or less mixed forms of speech. Khariā is mostly spoken in the Ranchi District of Chota Nagpur, and has all the characteristics of a language that is dying out and is being superseded by an Aryan form of speech. Aryan principles pervade its grammatical structure and its vocabulary, and it is no longer a typical Mundā language. It has been compared to a palimpsest, the original writing on which can only with difficulty be recognized. Juāṅg is very similar. It is spoken by the Juāṅgs or Patuās of the States of Keonjhar and Dhenkanal in Orissa. These people are probably the lowest in the scale of civilization of all the Mundā tribes. Till quite recently the women of the tribe did not even sew fig-leaves together to make themselves aprons. A bunch of leaves tied on in front and another behind was all that was claimed by the most exacting demands of fashion, and this costume was 'renewed as occasion required, when the fair wearer went to fetch cattle from the wood which provided her millinery.' Attempts have been made to introduce the wearing of loin-cloths, but I know not with what success. The most southern forms of Mundā speech are those spoken by the Savaras and the Gadabās of North-East Madras. The former have been identified with the Suari of Pliny and the Sabaræ of Ptolemy. A wild tribe of the same name is mentioned in Sanskrit literature, even so far back as late Vedic times, as inhabiting the Deccan, so that the name, at least, can boast of great antiquity. Their language is of considerable interest, and since it was discussed in Volume IV of the Survey a series of excellent Readers in it have been prepared by Mr. Ramamurti for the Madras

¹ The home of its speakers is in the west of the Pachmarhi Hills and in the Betul District of the Central Provinces. The Berar Kūrkūs are mostly found in the Melghat Taluk of Ellichpur, which is geographically a part of Betul.

Map indicating the Localities in which
 Austro-Asiatic and Pronominalised Himalayan
 Languages are spoken in India.

REFERENCE
 ——— International boundaries, independent states
 ——— Provincial boundaries
 ——— District and minor State boundaries



Government. Unfortunately, as the explanations are all in Telugu, they are of little use to European students.

The languages of the Muṇḍā Branch must once have been spoken over a much greater area of India than their present habitat. In the South, and to a certain extent in Chota Nagpur, they have been superseded by Dravidian forms of speech, and in the North by Aryan or Tibeto-Burman tongues. In each case, however, they have left their mark. As for the Dravidian languages, it is very probable that the rules for the harmonic sequence of vowels, which form so prominent a feature of Telugu are due to their influence,¹ and, to the North of Chota Nagpur, the extraordinary complexity of the verbal conjugation of the Aryan Bihārī is equally probably due to the same cause.² Another interesting point is that Muṇḍā numeration is vigesimal. The speakers count by twenties, not by tens as we and other Europeans do. But among the peasantry of Northern India vigesimal counting is quite usual. Instead of saying 'fifty,' they say 'two score and ten,' instead of 'sixty' they say 'three score,' and so on. This might be a case of mere coincidence, but that it is really an old Muṇḍā survival is shown by the fact that *kurī*, the word used all over Northern India for 'a score', is almost certainly a word of Muṇḍā origin. But it is in the Himalaya that these Muṇḍā survivals are most apparent. At the present day, the Muṇḍās have themselves survived as a recognized people only in the wild hill-country of Central India, and it is in accordance with this that they should also have survived for a longer time in the forests of the Himalaya than on the Aryanized plains of Northern India. In the Himalaya, from North-East Assam to the North-East Panjab, the great mass of the inhabitants speaks various forms of Tibeto-Burman tongues. Most of these are quite pure of their kind and possess all the peculiarities proper to that form of speech. But between Darjiling, north of Bengal, and Kanāwar, north of Simla in the Panjab, there is a series of scattered tribes speaking languages called in the Survey 'Complex Pronominalized.' Most of them belong to the group called by Hodgson 'Kirāntī', but there are also others not mentioned by him. These languages are all Tibeto-Burman, or belong to some group closely allied to the Tibeto-Burman, but through them all there runs a peculiar strain which it is impossible not to recognize as Muṇḍā, once attention is drawn to it.³ These Complex Pronominalized languages are many in number, and will be further dealt with when we come to the consideration of the Tibeto-Burman languages. Suffice it here to say that the most western is probably Kanāwarī, spoken in the Simla Hills, though there are doubtful cases even further west.

The Muṇḍā languages were first recognized as a separate group, distinct from the Dravidian, in the year 1854 by the late Professor Max Müller in his famous 'Letter to Chevalier Bunsen on the Classification of the Turanian Languages,' and received its name 'Muṇḍā' from him.⁴ As stated on page 14, in the comity of scholarship it has ever been an established rule that the first discoverer of any fact, whether it be a newly described flower, a newly

¹ See Vol. IV, p. 288.

² *Ib.*, p. 10.

³ See Vol. III, Pt. i, pp. 273ff., 427ff.

⁴ This name is justified by its use in Sanskrit literature. The name 'Muṇḍā' is found used for the people not only in the Mahābhārata (vi. 2410) but also in the Vāyu Purāṇa (xiv. 123). See Professor Sylvain Lévi's article 'Pré-Aryen et Pré-Dravidien' in *Journal Asiatique*, cciii, 22ff. See also p. 14, note 1.

described mineral, or a newly described group of languages, should have the right to give it its name, and that that name should be employed by other students unless and until it has been proved to be entirely false and misleading. Unfortunately this comity was not observed in the present case. Twelve years later, Sir George Campbell, no doubt unwittingly, ignored the name already given by Max Müller, and proposed to call these languages 'Kolarian'¹ because, as he imagined, the word 'Köl,'—a common tribal name of the Mundā people,—was derived from an older form 'Kolar,' which he apparently connected with the Kolar District of Mysore in Southern India, and looked upon as identical with the Kanarese word *kallar* meaning 'thief.' There is absolutely no foundation for this supposition, and this name 'Kolarian' is not only based upon a fantastic error, but is, in itself, objectionable as seeming to suggest a connexion with the word 'Aryan' which does not exist:

It is admitted that, with our present knowledge, it might be possible to suggest a better name than that given by Max Müller, and more than one such have been suggested; but, so far as India was concerned, only two names were possible. Sir George Campbell's authority brought 'Kolarian' into a certain vogue during the latter half of the last century; but the word was so manifestly incorrect and misleading that I have had no hesitation in refusing to employ it, and in using the only name which students, in the ordinary comity of scholarship, should follow, by reverting to the name originally given by the discoverer of the group.

The Mundā languages belong to the class known as 'agglutinative,' and exhibit the General character of the typical peculiarities of such forms of speech to an extraordinary degree. The only tongue with which I can compare them is Turkī. I have already referred to Max Müller as the first identifier of this group of tongues. Let me here quote what he says about the Turkī language of Central Asia:—

It is a real pleasure to read a Turkish grammar, even though one may have no use to acquire it practically. The ingenious ways in which the numerous grammatical forms are brought out, the regularity which pervades the system of declension and conjugation, the transparency and intelligibility of the whole structure, must strike all who have a sense of that wonderful power of the human mind which has displayed itself in language..... We have before us a language of perfectly transparent structure, and a grammar the inner workings of which we can study as if watching the building of cells in a crystal beehive. An eminent orientalist remarked, 'We might imagine Turkish to be the result of the deliberations of some eminent society of learned men'; but no such society could have devised what the mind of man produced, left to itself in the steppes of Tartary, and guided only by its innate laws, or by an instinctive power as wonderful as any within the realms of nature..... The most ingenious part of Turkish is undoubtedly the verb. Like Greek and Sanskrit, it exhibits a variety of moods and tenses, sufficient to express the nicest shades of doubt, of surmise, of hope, and of supposition. In all these forms the root remains intact, and sounds like the keynote through all the modulations produced by the changes of person, number, mood, and time. But there is one feature so peculiar to the Turkish verb that no analogy can be found in any of the Aryan languages, the power of providing new verbal bases by the mere addition of certain letters, which give to every verb a negative, or causative, or reflexive, or reciprocal meaning..... In their system of conjugation, the Turkish dialects can hardly be surpassed. Their verbs are like branches which break down under the heavy burden of fruits and blossoms.²

Nearly every word of the above applies with equal force to the Mundā languages.

Agglutination in the Mundā Suffix is piled on suffix, till we obtain words which, to European eyes, seem monstrous in their length, yet which

¹ *The Ethnology of India*, J. A. S. B., vol. xxv (1866), Pt. ii, Supplementary Number, p. 28.

² 'Lectures on the Science of Language', I, 354ff.

are complete in themselves, and every syllable of which contributes its fixed quota to the general signification of the whole. One example of the use of these suffixes, taken from Santālī, must suffice. The word *dal* means 'strike,' and from it we get *dal-ochō-akan-taken-tae-tiñ-a-e*, which signifies 'he, who belongs to him who belongs to me, will continue letting himself be struck.' If we insert the syllable *pa* in the middle of the root, so that we get *dapal*, the beating becomes reciprocal, and we have a fight, so that *dapal-ochō-akan-taken-tae-tiñ-a-e* means 'he, who belongs to him who belongs to me, will continue letting himself be caused to fight.' Again, if we substitute *akao-an* for *akan*, the same pugnacious individual with a string of owners will, with less disinterestedness, continue causing to fight only for himself. Not only may we, but we must employ this posy of speech, if, for instance, my slave's son was too often getting himself entangled in affrays. The best idea of the enormous number of complex ideas which can thus be formed according to the simplest rules may be gained from the fact that the conjugation of the verb 'to strike,' in the third person singular alone, occupies nearly a hundred pages in Mr. Skreftsrud's Santālī Grammar.

Among other characteristics of the Munda languages we may mention the following. As in the Indo-Chinese languages, final consonants are often checked, or pronounced without the offglide, thus forming what is often called by Chinese scholars the 'abrupt' or 'entering tone.' Such consonants are as characteristic of Cantonese as they are of Munda, and are common, so far as I am aware in all the languages of the Mōn-Khmēr branch of Austro-Asiatic speech.¹ Although masculine and feminine nouns are distinguished, there are only two real genders, one for all animate and the other for all inanimate objects. Nouns have three numbers, a singular, a dual, and a plural, the dual and plural numbers being indicated by suffixing the dual or plural, respectively, of the third personal pronoun to the noun. Short forms of all the personal pronouns are freely used, in each case as verbal suffixes. The dual and plural of the first personal pronoun have each two forms, one including the person addressed, and the other excluding him. If, when giving orders to your cook, you say, 'we shall dine at half past seven', you must be careful to use *ale* for 'we,' not *abon*; or else you will invite your servant also to the meal, which might give rise to awkwardness. As in many other eastern languages, participial formations are used instead of relative pronouns. 'The deer which you bought yesterday' would be rendered 'the yesterday deer bought by you.' Roots are modified in meaning not only by suffixes, but also by infixes, as in *da-pa-l* mentioned above. The logical form of a Munda sentence is altogether different from that of Aryan languages, and hence it is impossible to divide it into the parts of speech with which we are familiar, say, in English. The nearest thing that it has to what we call a verb merely calls up an idea, but is unable to make any assertion. The final assertion is made by one of the most characteristic features of Munda grammar, a particle known as 'the categorical *a*.' By its form, the sentence first unites the represented ideas into a mental picture, and then, by a further effort, affirms its reality. In English we say "John came." A Santālī would first call up a picture of John having come, and then, by adding the categorical *a*, would assert that this picture was a fact. Hence this *a* is not used in sentences that do not contain a categorical assertion, *e.g.* those which in English

¹ See Dyer Ball, 'Cantonese Made Easy Vocabulary', 3rd Edition, Preface. As stated above (p. 33, Note ¹) although called the 'entering tone' is, properly speaking, not a tone at all.

would contain a verb in the subjunctive or optative mood. Munḍā, with what is really better logic, relegates subjunctive and relative to what may be called the incomplete verb in company with what are with us participles, gerunds, and infinitives, and forms the only complete and real verb by the addition of the categorical *a*.

As in the case of several other uncivilized or semi-civilized tribes, the names which we give to many Munḍā tribes are not those by which their members call themselves, but those which we have adopted from their Aryan-speaking neighbours. Most of the tribes simply call themselves 'men', the same word with dialectic variations, Kōl, Kōrā, Kūr-kū (merely the plural of Kūr), Hār, Hārā-kō (another plural), or Hō, being used nearly universally. The Indian Aryans have adopted in one case the word 'Kōl' as a sort of generic term for any of these non-Aryan tribes, and have identified the word with a similarly spelt Sanskrit term signifying 'pig,' a piece of etymology which, though hardly in accordance with the ideas of European science, is infinitely comforting to those that apply it. The Rāj of these Kōls is a subject of legend over large tracts of the south side of the Gangetic valley, where not one sentence of Munḍā origin has been heard for generations. The name is perhaps at the bottom of our word 'coolie,' and of the names of one or more important castes which would indignantly deny their Munḍā origin.

CHAPTER III.—KAREN AND MAN.

Before describing the languages belonging to the Tibeto-Chinese languages, we must refer briefly to two other groups of languages the affiliation of which is doubtful, and which, pending the completion of the Linguistic Survey of Burma have been provisionally put down as independent families. These are the Karen Family and the Man Family. Neither is described in the pages of the present Survey.

The Karen Family.

Karen is a group of dialects spoken by members of the Karen tribe scattered over South Burma and the neighbouring parts of Siam.¹ According to the late Professor Terrien de Lacouperie, they are pre-Chinese, and in that case may be connected with the 'Man' languages to be presently described, with which I have myself noted more than one resemblance. It is possible also that they may be distant relations of the Kirānti languages spoken in the Himalaya, but here the case must be left for further investigation by the Linguistic Survey of Burma. Where so much doubt exists, it is hardly necessary to state that the Karens have been identified by some with the lost Ten Tribes, and it is not actually impossible that they may have gathered some of their traditions from early Jewish colonists in Northern China. From Northern China they appear to have migrated to the neighbourhood of Ava, whence, about the fifth or sixth century of our era, they came down southward and spread over the hills between the Irrawaddy, the Salwin, and the Mè-nām

Karen.					Census of 1921.
Sgaw	368,282
Pwo	352,466
Taungthū	210,535
Karenni	34,488
Others	148,255
TOTAL					1,114,026

as far as the seaboard. I must leave to the Linguistic Survey of Burma the task of describing the various forms of Karen. They are many in number. Here it must be sufficient to state that the most important forms are Karenni, or Red Karen, of the north, Pwo and Sgaw of the south, and Taungthū.

The Man Family.

The languages which have been provisionally classed under the name of 'Man' are mainly spoken in China and Indo-China, although a few speakers are found in British Burma. The name 'Man' is Chinese and means a 'Southern Barbarian.' It is applied by the Chinese to certain wild tribes inhabiting the mountainous tracts of Indo-China and that part of China bordering on it. Representatives of two of these tribes,—the Miao and the Yao have turned up in the Southern Shan States and their languages have

Man.					Census of 1921.
Miao	394
Yao	197
TOTAL					591

been recorded in the Census of 1921. These languages hardly concern India, but will no doubt be dealt with in the Linguistic Survey of Burma. Fuller information regarding them will be found in the Introduction to the Comparative Vocabulary forming Part II of this Volume.

¹ The locality in which Karen is spoken is shown in the map facing page 50.

CHAPTER IV.—THE TIBETO-CHINESE FAMILY.

Excepting the Austric, no great family of speeches is spoken over so wide an extent of the Eastern Hemisphere from Central Asia to Southern Burma, and from Baltistan to Peking—as that formless, ever moving, ant-horde of dialects, the Tibeto-Chinese. The number of its speakers far exceeds those of the Austric, and even of the Indo-European family. So vast is the area covered by it, and so apparently infinite is the number of its members, that no single scholar can hope to master the latter in their entirety. A few of them, such as Tibetan, Burmese, Siamese, or Chinese, have been more or less thoroughly investigated by specialists; of others we have only a few words, single bricks, each of which we have to take as specimens of an entire house; while of others, again, we know only the names, or not even that.

The first attempts at classifying this mass of languages were made by Brian Houghton Hodgson, *clarum et venerabile nomen*, and his works still form the foundation of all similar undertakings.

Closely following Hodgson came the enthusiastic and indefatigable Logan, to whom we are indebted for much that relates to Burma and Assam. After him we find several writers, some like Mason, Cushing, Forbes, or Edkins, armed with a practical mastery of a portion of the field, and adding new facts to our knowledge, and others, trained philologists like Max Müller, Friedrich Müller, or Terrien de Lacouperie, who examined the materials collected by the former, and did something towards reducing chaos into order. Since then considerable progress has been made, and, if we confine ourselves to our immediate subject, the languages of India and the countries of the immediate neighbourhood, it will be sufficient to record the work done by the late Professor Kuhn of Munich, Professor Conrady, formerly of Leipzig, Dr. Laufer and Professor Bradley in America, and, above all, the brilliant band of scholars which adorns L'École Française d'Extrême-Orient at Hanoi under the leadership of Monsieur Finot. Through their labours a framework of classification has been put together which is generally accepted by scholars who are in a position to judge its value. They have even succeeded in formulating phonetic rules that bridge over the differences between what are apparently the most widely separated languages, and in suggesting theories to account for the origin of the tones which are so characteristic of these forms of speech. In this way the ground has been prepared for the Linguistic Survey of Burma, which will, I hope, be well advanced before these words are in type.

If there is one principle that is universally accepted in comparative philology, it is that languages must be classed according to their grammars. Vocabulary alone is but an untrustworthy guide. If we judge by vocabulary, the Latinized English of Dr. Johnson would have to be recorded as a Romance language, and Urdū as Semitic or Eranian, whereas every one knows that English is really Teutonic and Urdū Indo-Aryan. The rule applies admirably to languages like Sanskrit or Latin or English, which *have* grammars, but what are we to do when we come to languages which to our Aryan ideas have no grammar at all—forms of speech which make no distinction between noun, adjective, and verb, which have no inflexions, or hardly any, and which are entirely composed of monosyllables that never change their forms? According to the 'Century Dictionary', grammar is 'a systematic

account of the usages of a language, as regards especially the parts of speech it distinguishes, the forms and uses of inflected words, and the combinations of words into sentences.' Hence, to answer the above question, we must either abandon our principle or enlarge our conception of grammar by omitting the word 'inflected' from the definition. We are thus thrown back on the forms and uses of words generally; that is to say, we are compelled to lay more stress upon a comparison of vocabularies, and, as will be seen subsequently, this will really bring us back to our principle. Tibeto-Chinese languages, like the Buddhists who speak most of them, have passed through many births. They, too, are under the sway of *karma*. The latest investigations have shown that in former existences they were inflected, with all the familiar panoply of prefix and suffix, and that these long dead accretions are still influencing each word in their vocabularies in its form, its pronunciation, and even the position which it now occupies in a sentence. The history of a Tibeto-Chinese word may be compared to the fate of a number of exactly similar stones which a man threw into the sea at various places along the shore. One fell into a calm pool, and remained unchanged; another received a coating of mud; which, in the course of centuries, itself became a hard outer covering entirely concealing what was within; another fell among rocks in a stormy channel, and was knocked about and chipped and worn away by continual attrition till only a geologist could identify it; another was burrowed into by the pholas till it became a caricature of its former self; another was overgrown by limpets, and then was so worn away and ill-treated by the rude waves that, like the grin of Alice's Cheshire cat, all that remained was the merest trace clinging to the shell of its whilom guest. Laborious and patient analysis has enabled scholars to trace the fate of some vocables through all their different vicissitudes. For instance, no two words can apparently be so different as *rang* and *ma*, both of which mean 'horse,' and yet Professor Conrady has traced the derivation of the latter from the former, although all that has remained of the original *rang* in the Chinese *ma* is the tone of voice in which the latter is pronounced!

Tradition and comparative philology agree in pointing to North-Western China between the upper courses of the Yang-tse and of the Hoang-ho as the original home of the Tibeto-Chinese race.¹ Further India and Assam have been populated by successive waves of Tibeto-Chinese invaders, each advancing in turn down the courses of one or more of the principal streams, the Brahmaputra, the Chindwin, the Irrawaddy, the Salwin, the Mé-nâm, and the Mé-khong, and driving its predecessors nearer to the sea-coast, or into the mountain fastnesses which overlook the valleys. Philology, moreover, teaches us that the earliest Tibeto-Chinese immigrants must have found other races settled there. Amongst these were certainly the Mön-Khmêrs, and possibly also the ancestors of the Karens and of those wild tribes of Indo-China, whose languages are grouped together in these pages under the title of 'Man.' The Mön-Khmêrs have already been dealt with. The Karens and the Mans do not fall within the limits of this Survey, but will certainly be discussed at length in the Linguistic Survey of Burma now under consideration. They have, however, been briefly alluded to, for the sake of completeness in the preceding pages.

The Tibeto-Chinese family of languages is conveniently divided into two sub-families,—the Tibeto-Burman and the Siamese-Chinese. Neither of these is fully represented in this Survey. Nearly

¹ See E. Kuhn, 'Ueber Herkunft und Sprache der transgangetischen Völker', pp. 4 and 8.
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Tibeto-Chinese Family.			
	Survey.	Census of 1921.	
Tibeto-Burman . . .	1,980,307	11,959,011	
Siamese Chinese . . .	4,205	926,335	
TOTAL . . .	1,984,512	12,885,346	

all the speakers of the latter, so far as they are included in the Indian census returns, belong to Further India, only a few minor dialects being found in Assam, where they fell into the Survey net. As for the Tibeto-

Burman languages, this Survey accounts for only about a fifth of the whole, the great majority of the speakers of these languages being inhabitants of Burma.

The Tibeto-Burmans appear to have first migrated from their original seat on the upper courses of the Yang-tse and Hoang-ho towards the head-waters of the Irrawaddy and of the Chindwin. Thence, it is believed that some followed the upper course of the Brahmaputra, the Sanpo, north of the Himalaya, and peopled Tibet. A few of these crossed the watershed and occupied the hills on the southern side of the Himalayan range right along from Assam, in the East, to the Panjab in the West. At the Assam end, they met and mingled with others of the same family who had wandered along the lower Brahmaputra through the Assam Valley. At the great bend of the river, near the present town of Dhubri, these last followed it to the South, and occupied first the Garo Hills, and then what is now the State of Hill Tippera. Others of them appear to have ascended the valley of the Kapili and the neighbouring streams into the hill-country of North Cachar, but the mountainous tract between it and the Garo Hills, now known as the Khasi and Jaintia Hills, they failed to occupy, and it still remains a home of the ancient Mōn-Khmēr speech. Other members of this Tibeto-Burman horde halted at the head of the Assam Valley and turned south. They took possession of the Naga Hills, and became the ancestors of that confused sample-bag of tribes, whose speeches we call for convenience the Naga group. Some of these probably entered the eastern Naga country directly, but others entered the western Naga country from the South, *viâ* Manipur, and there are signs of this northern movement going on even at the present day. Other members remained round the upper waters of the Irrawaddy and the Chindwin, where Kachin is now spoken, and there formed the nursery for further emigrations. We have apparently traces of the earlier movements in dialects of servile tribes,—the so-called ‘Lüi’ languages—of Manipur, and in stray dialects, such as Kadu, Szi, Lashi, Maingtha, Phón (Hpón), or Maru, scattered over northern Burma. Later, but still early, settlers in Manipur must have been the Manipuris, for their language, Meithei, shows not only points of agreement with that spoken at the present day in its original home in what is now the Kachin country, but also with those of all the other emigrants from that tract. Another of these swarms settled in the upper basins of the Chindwin and the Irrawaddy, and gradually advanced down the courses of those streams, driving before themselves, or absorbing, or leaving untouched in the highlands, their predecessors, the Mōn-Khmērs. Before their language had time to change materially from the form of speech spoken in the home they had left, branches of these turned westwards and settled in the Chin Hills, south of Manipur.¹ There they increased and multiplied, till, driven by the pressure of population, they retraced their

¹ Another possible view is that these Chin tribes branched off, not from the Burmese invaders, but from the Meitheis who had settled in the Manipur Valley. Linguistic evidence, however, points to the account given above as the most probable statement of facts.

steps northward in wave after wave along the hills, leaving colonies in Lushai-land, Cachar, and even amongst their cousins of Manipur and their more distant relations of the Naga Hills. Their descendants speak some thirty languages, all different, yet all closely connected, and classed together with Meithei as forming the Kuki-Chin group. Another of these waves entered Yün-nan. They do not immediately concern us, but they are of more than ordinary interest, in that a very ancient form of this speech, known as Si-hia, now many centuries dead, has been preserved for us by a Chinese philologist. The particulars given by him have been made available to European students by Dr. Laufer in 'T'oung-pao.'¹ Si-hia was spoken on the North-West frontier of China, and is the only ancient Tibeto-Burman language with which we are acquainted. The modern representatives of this swarm are the Lolos, most of whom are found in Yün-nan, though a few stray tribes speaking Lolo dialects can be found in eastern Burma. The main branch of the Chindwin-Irrawaddy swarm, the ancestors of the modern Burmese, continued to follow its line of march along the rivers, till it ultimately occupied the whole of the lower country, and founded the capitals of Pagan and Prome. Finally, in quite modern times, another migration of the Kachins has pressed towards the south, and their progress has been stopped only by our occupation of Upper Burma. That there is complete historical evidence for all that precedes cannot be pretended. Much of it deals with prehistoric times. All that I have endeavoured to present has been the opinions which I have based on a comparison of local traditions with the facts ascertained by ethnology and philology. It must be confessed that some of the steps have been taken with hesitation and upon doubtful ground.

We are treading on firmer soil when we approach the next great invasion,—that of the speakers of the Siamese-Chinese languages. These are represented in British India by one group,—the Tai. The Siamese-Chinese. Chinese also belongs to the same sub-family, but does not concern us. Some authorities include Karen in this sub-family, but the affiliation is at present very doubtful, and as explained above,² pending the completion of the Linguistic Survey of Burma, I followed the Census of 1921 in classing Karen provisionally as belonging to a separate family.

The Tais first appeared in history in Yün-nan, and from thence they migrated into Upper Burma. The earliest swarms appear to have entered that tract about two thousand years ago, and were small in number. Later and more important invasions were undoubtedly due to the pressure of the Chinese. A great wave of Tai migration descended in the sixth century of our era from the mountains of southern Yün-nan into the valley of the Shweli and the adjacent regions, and through it that valley became the centre of their political power. Early in the thirteenth century their capital was fixed at the present Müng Mau. From the Shweli the Tai or Shām, or (as the Burmese call them) Shàn, spread south-east over the present Shan States, north into the present Khāmti region, and, west of the Irrawaddy, into all the country lying between it, the Chindwin, and Assam. In the thirteenth century one of their tribes, the Āhoms, overran and conquered Assam itself, giving their name to the country. Not only does tradition assert that these Shàn of Upper Burma are the oldest members of the Tai

¹ 2nd Series, Vol. xvii, No. 1, March, 1915.

² P. 39.

family, but they are always spoken of by the other branches as the *Tai Long*, or Great Tai, while these others call themselves *Tai Noi*, or Little Tai.

These earliest settlers and other parties from Yün-nan gradually pressed southwards, driving before them, as we shall see was also done by the Tibeto-Burmans in the valley of the Irrawaddy, the Mön-Khmêrs, but the process was a slow one. It was not until the fourteenth century of our era that the Siamese, or, as they call themselves, Thai, established themselves in the great delta of the Mé-nâm, and formed a wedge of Tai-speaking people between the Mön-Khmêrs of Tenasserim and those of Cambodia. The word 'Siam,' like 'Assam,' is but a corruption of 'Shâm.'

The Shàn of Burma were not so fortunate. Their power reached its zenith in the closing years of the thirteenth century, and thereafter gradually declined. The Siamese and Lao dependencies became a separate kingdom under the suzerainty of Ayuthia, the old capital of Siam. Wars with the Burmese kings and with the Chinese were frequent, and the invasions of the latter caused great loss. The last of the Shàn States, Mogaung, was conquered by the Burmese king Alomphra in the middle of the eighteenth century, but by the commencement of the seventeenth century Shàn history had already merged into that of Burma, and the Shàn principalities, though they were always restive and given to frequent rebellions and to intestine wars, never succeeded in throwing off the yoke of the Burmans.

To sum up the history of the Indo-Chinese languages, so far as it relates to British India. The earliest inhabitants of whom we have any trace seem to have been the pre-Chinese ancestors of the wild 'Man' tribes now found in French Indo-China and in China proper, with whom it is possible that the Karens of Burma may claim a distant relationship. From Indo-Nesia, in the South, came the Mön-Khmêrs, who occupied a large part of Further India, including Assam. Subsequent invasions of Tibeto-Burmans have thrust them back, down to the seaboard, leaving a few waifs and strays in the highlands of their old homes. Of the Tibeto-Burman stock, one branch entered Tibet, some of whose descendants crossed the Himalaya, and settled on the southern slopes of that range. Others followed the course of the Brahmaputra, and even occupied the Garo Hills and Tippera. Others found homes in the Naga Hills, in the valley of Manipur, and the upper waters of the Chindwin and the Irrawaddy. From the last-named region swarm after swarm took a southern course. *En route* colonies were dropped in the Chin Hills, whence again a backwash has appeared in modern times in Lushai-land, Cachar and the neighbourhood. The rest of the swarms gradually forced their way down the valley of the Irrawaddy, where they settled and founded a comparatively stable kingdom. Finally another group of Tibeto-Chinese peoples, the Tai, conquered the mountainous country to the East of Upper Burma, and spread north and west among, but not conquering, the Tibeto-Burman Kachins of the upper country. They also spread south and occupied the Mön-Khmêr country between them and the sea, and their most important members now occupy a strip of territory running north and south, with Burmese and, lower down, Mön speakers on their west, and Chinese and Annamese on their east. Annamese itself appears to have been originally a Tai language, but it is now so mixed with Mön-Khmêr and Chinese that its correct affiliation is a matter of some doubt.

Tibeto-Chinese languages exhibit two of the three well-known divisions of human speech, the isolating, the agglutinating, and the inflecting. General characteristics of the Tibeto-Chinese languages. From this list it is not to be assumed that an isolating language is necessarily in the earliest stage of its development. All Tibeto-Chinese languages were once agglutinative, but some of them, Chinese for instance, are now isolating; that is to say, the old prefixes and suffixes have been worn away and have lost their significance; every word, whether it once had prefix or suffix, or both, or not, is now a monosyllable; and, if it is desired to modify it in respect to time, place, or other relation, this is not done by again adding a new prefix or a new suffix, but by compounding with it, *i.e.*, simply adding to it, some new word which has a meaning of its own, and is not incorporated with the main word in any way. For example, the Chinese word indicating the idea of 'going' is \k'ü, and that indicating the idea of completion is lyao, and if a Chinaman wishes to convey the idea of 'he went,' he says 'he going completion,' -t'ā \k'ü lyao. Even in Chinese, some of these subsidiary words which modify the meaning of the principal one have lost their significance as separate vocables, and only continue in existence as prefixes or suffixes. This brings us to the agglutinating stage of language, in which sentences are built up of words united to formal parts, prefixes, suffixes, or infixes, which denote the relationship of each to the other members of the phrase.

Isolating languages. The differences, in kind and degree, between the various agglutinating languages are very great; the variety ranges from a scantiness hardly superior to Chinese isolation, up to an intricacy which is almost incredible.

We may take the Tai languages as examples of forms of speech in which the agglutinative principle is showing signs of superseding the isolating, while in the Tibeto-Burman family it has practically done so, and but few of the affixes are capable of being used as words with independent meanings. They are agglutinative languages almost in the full sense of the term. There is one more stage which we meet but rarely, and even then in sporadic instances, in Tibeto-Chinese languages. In it the words used as affixes have not only lost their original meaning, but have become so incorporated with the main word which they serve to modify, that they have become one word with it, and the two are no longer capable of identification as separate words except by a process of analysis. Moreover, the root word itself becomes liable to alteration. This stage is known as the inflexional, and Sanskrit and the other Indo-European languages offer familiar examples of it.

Before proceeding further, it will be useful to quote the following general observations which were made by the late Professor Friedrich Müller of Vienna in his great work on comparative philology:—

Expression of abstract and concrete ideas.

The manner in which primitive conceptions are formed is of the greatest importance in influencing the further development of a language as a medium for expressing human thought. Things may be conceived in their concrete entirety, or they may be sub-divided into their different components, which are then classified according to certain characteristics, and conceived as more abstract ideas. In the former case the language does not proceed further than to intuition; in the latter it develops abstract conceptions and ideas.

The languages belonging to the former class are, it is true, very picturesque and poetical, possessing an extraordinarily large stock of concrete and characteristic terms for individual things; but they are quite unfitted for acting as mediums of higher thought, not being able to denote abstract ideas free from all accidental

properties. This linguistic tendency, in its turn, influences the mind, so that it becomes unable to perform the higher acts of thinking by means of abstract ideas.

There are many languages which possess words to denote the varieties of different animals, but have got no word for animal. They are able to distinguish the various modes of sitting by means of distinct picturesque terms, but the simple idea 'to sit' cannot find expression. Such languages have no proper comprehension of form, and are quite unfit for the classification and combination of ideas. The principal reason is that they do not possess particles, that is, words with a wider meaning, which support the act of thinking like algebraic formulas. When such languages are forced into modern conceptions, as, for instance, in translating the Bible they are at once overcome by the substance; they conceive as substance what we conceive as form.

The deficiency of such languages is, to no small extent, due to the fact that they do not possess a real verb, the whole expression starting from substantival conceptions.¹

All the Tibeto-Chinese languages once belonged to the class just described, although some of those which have developed a literature, like Chinese, Siamese, and Tibetan, have overcome the difficulty of not possessing a real verb, and are now able to express abstract ideas. But most of those with which we are now concerned, and especially the Tibeto-Burman, are still in the stage of being able easily to express only concrete ideas. Many of them, for instance, do not possess a general term for so simple an idea as 'man,' but have to use their own tribal name instead. They can speak of an Englishman, a Singpho, a Māndē or Gārō, and an Arleng or Mikir, but they have no word for 'man' in the abstract. Again, Lushēi has nine or ten words, at least, for different kinds of ants, but no word for 'ant' generally.

The words denoting relationship and parts of the body are the results of an abstraction. A father in the abstract, who is not the father of any particular individual, is an idea which requires a certain amount of reflection; and such words are, accordingly, hardly ever used alone in the Tibeto-Burman languages, but are (with few exceptions) always preceded by a possessive pronoun, or a noun in the genitive case. We find 'my father,' 'thy mother,' 'his hand'; but 'father,' 'mother,' and 'hand' are not used by themselves. Most Tibeto-Burmans would be sadly put to it to translate literally such a sentence as 'the hand possesses five fingers.' The possessive pronoun of the third person occurs, of course, much more frequently than those of the first and second persons, and it has in several languages lost its proper meaning, and has become a bare meaningless prefix, used with all nouns when they are employed in an abstract sense. I have referred to this process in some detail, as it well illustrates how, as the need for the use of abstract nouns grew with the progress of civilization, it has been supplied in a very simple way in a large class of languages. We have evidence of every stage of the process, and we meet instances of it in tracts so wide apart as the Hindūkush and the Chin Hills.²

Similarly, the Indo-Chinese verb has grown out of a noun,—another example of the development of the abstract from the concrete. The simplest Tibeto-Burman form of 'I go' is the concrete idea of 'my going.' 'I went' is 'my-going completion,' and on this system has grown the entire conjugation of the neuter verb which we find in Tibeto-

¹ It would be more correct to say that these languages possess neither noun nor verb, but a 'something' which is neither noun nor verb, and which can be used for both. There is no word in English capable of denoting exactly what this indefinite 'something' is, and the use by Müller of terms borrowed from European grammatical terminology has misled more than one scholar.

² All agglutinative languages do not form abstract nouns in this way. For instance, in some Melanesian speeches, in which a similar state of affairs exists, a special termination is employed which gives a purely abstract meaning.

Burman grammars. On the other hand 'I beat him' is 'by-me his beating,' which we at once see can represent either an active (I beat him), or a passive (he is beaten by me) expression. This explains the statement we so often see that these languages possess no passive. They have no voice at all, either active or passive, because they have no real verbs.

A prominent characteristic of most Tibeto-Chinese languages is that they possess significant tones. In this they differ from the Mōn-Khmēr languages which have none. So characteristic are they of Tibeto-Chinese that some writers have proposed to group the whole family under the title of 'Polytonic,' a classification which is false, for some Tibeto-Chinese languages (such as Western Tibetan) do not possess any significant tones at all. The number of tones varies from language to language, *e.g.*, Siamese and Cantonese have each six, while Burmese has but two; but, wherever they occur, they are of the utmost importance for intelligibility. The essential element of a tone is that it must be significant, that is to say that, without it, the word with which it should be used, has some other meaning or has no meaning at all. If we write such a word, a sign to indicate the tone with which it is pronounced is just as important as the letters with which it is written. If we do not indicate the tone in writing, we might just as well in English write 'ca' and leave the reader to discover whether we mean 'cab' or 'cad' or 'call' or 'cam' or 'can' or 'cap' or 'car' or 'cat.' Unfortunately, in writing such Tibeto-Chinese words, not only does the method of indicating tones differ from language to language, but for many languages no attempt is made to indicate them at all. In the latter case writing without tone-marks shows only a portion of the language. We know a part of each word, but not a single complete word. If we take another example, this time from Siamese, we may take the word often written *mā*, but this means nothing unless we give it a tone. We then learn that *—mā* means 'come,' while *_mā* means 'soak,' *˘mā* means 'a horse,' *\mā* means 'beautiful,' and *-mā* means 'a dog.' In this way *˘mā \mā —mā* is 'the beautiful horse comes,' but without the tone-marks it might signify half-a-dozen altogether different ideas. We could not tell if it was a horse or a dog that was beautiful or was coming, or if it was coming or soaking, or if it was a horse belonging to a dog, or a dog belonging to a horse, or if the dog was soaking the horse, or the horse was soaking the dog. A tone is essentially an acoustic pitch or change of pitch. A word pronounced on a high pitch means one thing, on a low pitch means another, on a rising pitch another, and so on. Annamese is one of these languages, and we need not be astonished that the first missionaries who heard it compared it to the twittering of birds. All the same, a tone has nothing to do with stress or length or abruptness, with which we are more familiar in European languages. It is a matter of pitch and pitch only, and affects every word in a language, and (with certain exceptions) each particular word always in the same way. The word for 'come,' for instance, is in Siamese always *—mā*, with a mid level tone, and never with any other tone, whatever be its collocation in the sentence.¹ This is not the place to discuss the question of the origin of tones, nor, indeed, has it yet been finally decided. Suffice it to say that in old days, the particular tone taken by a word largely depended on its initial consonant, and that Lepsius long

¹ The question of the best method for indicating tones is discussed more fully in the Introduction to the Comparative Vocabulary forming Part II of this Volume.

ago suggested, and his arguments have been powerfully supported by Professor Conrady, that tones are often due to the disappearance of prefixes. In a dissyllabic word composed of a prefix plus a root, the accent was strongly on the root. The natural tendency was for the unaccented prefix gradually to wear away, and, instead of the accent, which, as the word was now again a monosyllable, could no longer exist, the tone was given to the word as a kind of compensation, indicating the former existence of the disappeared prefix. It follows that where prefixes are still used there is the less necessity for tones. Thus, Chinese and Siamese, which have no prefixes, have many, while Burmese, which uses prefixes more freely, has only two, and these are not used with every word, many words having no significant tone. In the Tibeto-Chinese languages of Assam and Upper Burma, which, like Burmese, are purely agglutinative languages, we notice a similar paucity of tones. We rarely hear of more than one or two, although it must be confessed that, owing to the lack of trained observers on the spot, our information on the subject is scanty.

Tibeto-Chinese languages, and also Mōn-Khmēr and Munḍā, have another peculiarity called by Chinese scholars 'the entering tone,' though, properly speaking, it is not a tone of any kind.¹ It consists in the abrupt conclusion of a word by a sudden check, and we may get an approximate idea of its effect from the staccato sound of the English 'no' of peremptory refusal. It is difficult to describe its nature without the use of the technical terms of phonetics, and I therefore content myself with explaining that if a word so affected ends in a vowel, it is said to be distinguished by a 'glottal check,' while, if it ends in a consonant, that consonant is said to be deprived of its off-glide. Comparing one language with another, we see that the latter often leads to the former. Thus the Lushēi *mi*⁶, an eye, with a final consonant wanting the off-glide, becomes *mhi*^o in Angāmi Nāgā and *mi*^o in Kachin, both of which are sounded with a glottal check.

The order of words is not a distinguishing feature of the Tibeto-Chinese languages as a whole. There must have once been a time when this order was not fixed as it is at present. With the disappearance of prefixes and suffixes the want was felt of some method for defining the relation which each word bore to its neighbour in the sentence. This was partly done by fixing its position, but the different groups did not all adopt the same system. Each naturally arranged its words in the order of thought followed by its members, and this order of thought differed from group to group. We can note the same differences in more western languages. A Semitic speaker thinks first of what is done, and then of who does it, so that, say, an Arab says 'beats John,' where an Indo-European speaker, thinking first of the actor and then of the action, says 'John beats.' In this way the order of thought in a sentence throws considerable light on the mentality of the nation to which the speaker belongs. The Arab thinks first of what has to be done, and less urgently of the agent, while the Indo-European first selects his agent, and then decides what he is to do. The Siamese-Chinese languages, like the Mōn-Khmēr, adopted the order of subject, verb, object, with the adjective following the noun qualified; while in the Tibeto-Burman languages we have subject, object, verb, and the adjective usually, but not always,

¹ See Footnote to p. 33.

following the noun. Again in the Tai group, as in Mōn-Khmēr and Nicobarese, the genitive case follows the noun by which it is governed, while in Tibeto-Burman and Chinese, it precedes it.

In the preceding pages I have discussed the general question of the Tibeto-Burman and the Siamese-Chinese peoples and languages in the order, so far as it is known to us, of their appearance in history. I now proceed to describe in detail the languages of each of these two sub-families, and for this it will be most convenient to begin, not with Tibeto-Burman, but with the, for India, less important Siamese-Chinese. The way will then be left clear for the consideration at length of the more intricate grouping of Tibeto-Burman.

CHAPTER V.—THE SIAMESE-CHINESE SUB-FAMILY.

The Siamese-Chinese sub-family consists of two groups,—the Sinitic and the Tai.

	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Sinitic Group	127,527
Tai Group	4,205	926,335
TOTAL	4,205	1,053,862
	Chinese.	
	Sinitic Group.	

	Census of 1921.
Chinese	127,527

The former includes Chinese, and, as explained above,¹ perhaps Karen, neither of which is dealt with in the Survey. Chinese is nowhere a vernacular of British India, although natives of the Flowery Land are found in nearly every large city as merchants, leather-workers, carpenters, cane workers, and the like. In Rangoon and Upper Burma there are considerable communities, but all are temporary immigrants, who are either merchants that have come by sea, or else people from Yün-nan.

The Tai race, in its different branches, is beyond all question the most widely spread of any in the Indo-Chinese Peninsula, and it is certainly the most numerous. Its members are to be found from Assam to far into the Chinese Province of Kwang-si, and from Bangkok to the interior of Yün-nan. The history of its migration from Yün-nan into southern Indo-China has been already briefly described.² It remains to consider the various forms of speech used by the nations of which it is composed.

Seven languages of the Tai group were recorded in the Census,—Siamese, Lao, Lü, Khün, Daye, Shän, and Khämti. Of these,

	Tai Group.	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Siamese	8,744
Lao	3,851
Lü	26,108
Khün	33,210
Daye	746
Shän	200	843,810
Ähom
Khämti	4,005	9,866
TOTAL	4,205	926,335	
	Siamese.		

only Khämti and a stray dialect of Shän are found in the area subjected to the operations of this Survey. So far as the Census figures enumerate them, the others (except Ähom, which is a dead language) were all found in British Burma. Excluding Khämti, these six languages have no less than seven different written characters, and there are numerous dialects. The Siamese character, which was invented in the year 1125, is altogether different from the others. The language, so far as British India is concerned, is spoken principally in the Amherst and Mergui Districts of Burma. Lao, a dialect of Siamese, is widely spoken in Siam, and in Burma is found in the Amherst District, bordering on that country. It has an alphabet of its own, borrowed from that of Mön. Lü and Khün have alphabets closely related to that of Lao. They are spoken in the Kengtung Shan State, just north of the Siamese frontier. They are forms of speech intermediate between Siamese and Shän. Daye is spoken by a few people in the Southern Shan States. I know nothing about it.

¹ See p. 39.

² See p. 43.



Shān proper is spoken all over the Shan States, both British and Chinese, as far north as Mogaung, and also in the country to their north-west. It has a northern, a southern, and a Chinese dialect, the last having a slightly different written character, which, like all the other Shān alphabets, is borrowed from Burmese. The word "Shān," or, as sounded, "Shàn," is the Burmese pronunciation of "Shām," which is the correct form, and which reappears in the final syllable of "Assam." As this Survey did not cover the Shan States, the only example of the language across which it came, was the Aiton dialect spoken by some 200 immigrants to Assam. These will be mentioned again lower down.

In the year 1228 A.D., just about the time when Kublai Khan was establishing himself in China, a Shan tribe, the Āhoms, entered the country now called Assam, where they settled and to which they ultimately gave their name, 'Āhom' being but a variant pronunciation of 'Āsām.' They gradually established their power, which reached its culminating point in their victory over the Kachārīs of Dimāpur in 1540. This made them masters of the whole of the Assam Valley, and they continued to rule their territories with vigour and success up to the end of the seventeenth century, when they became infected with Hinduism. They lost their pride of race, their habits changed, and 'instead of being like barbarians, but mighty Kshatriyas, they became, like Brāhmans, powerful in talk alone.' They gradually declined in strength, and Assam, after being first conquered by the Burmese, was finally annexed by the British in 1824. So completely Hinduized did they become before their final fall, that their language has been dead for centuries, and is now known only by a few priests who have remained faithful to their old traditions. Āhom is an old form of the language which ultimately became Shān, and it is of great importance for the study of the mutual relationship of the various Tai languages.

It is curious that, in spite of their long domination, the Āhoms have left so few traces of their influence on the languages of the Assam Valley. They appear to have been throughout few in number, and, as their rule extended over various tribes speaking different forms of speech, the necessity of a lingua franca soon became apparent. This could only have been either Āhom or Assamese. The latter, being an Aryan language, possessed the greater vitality, and its use was no doubt encouraged by the Hindū priests who acquired influence over the ruling race. That influence alone would not have been sufficient, for we shall see how in Manipur, where Hinduism was enthusiastically accepted, the people have still retained their language, although the Brāhmans have had to invent a written character in which to record it. Although the Āhoms have left so few traces on the language of Assam, they have nevertheless laid their mark upon its literature. One of the few Āhom words used at the present day is *buranji*, 'the store of instruction for the ignorant,' as they called history, and it is to them that Assam owes the historical sense which created the series of chronicles, still called by their old foreign name, that are the pride of its literature.¹

When Mogaung was conquered by Alomphra, a number of Shans migrated north, and settled here and there in the country round the upper courses of the Chindwin and

¹ Regarding the Āhom *Buranjis*, see Sir Edward Gait's *History of Assam*, pp. xff. (2nd Edition).

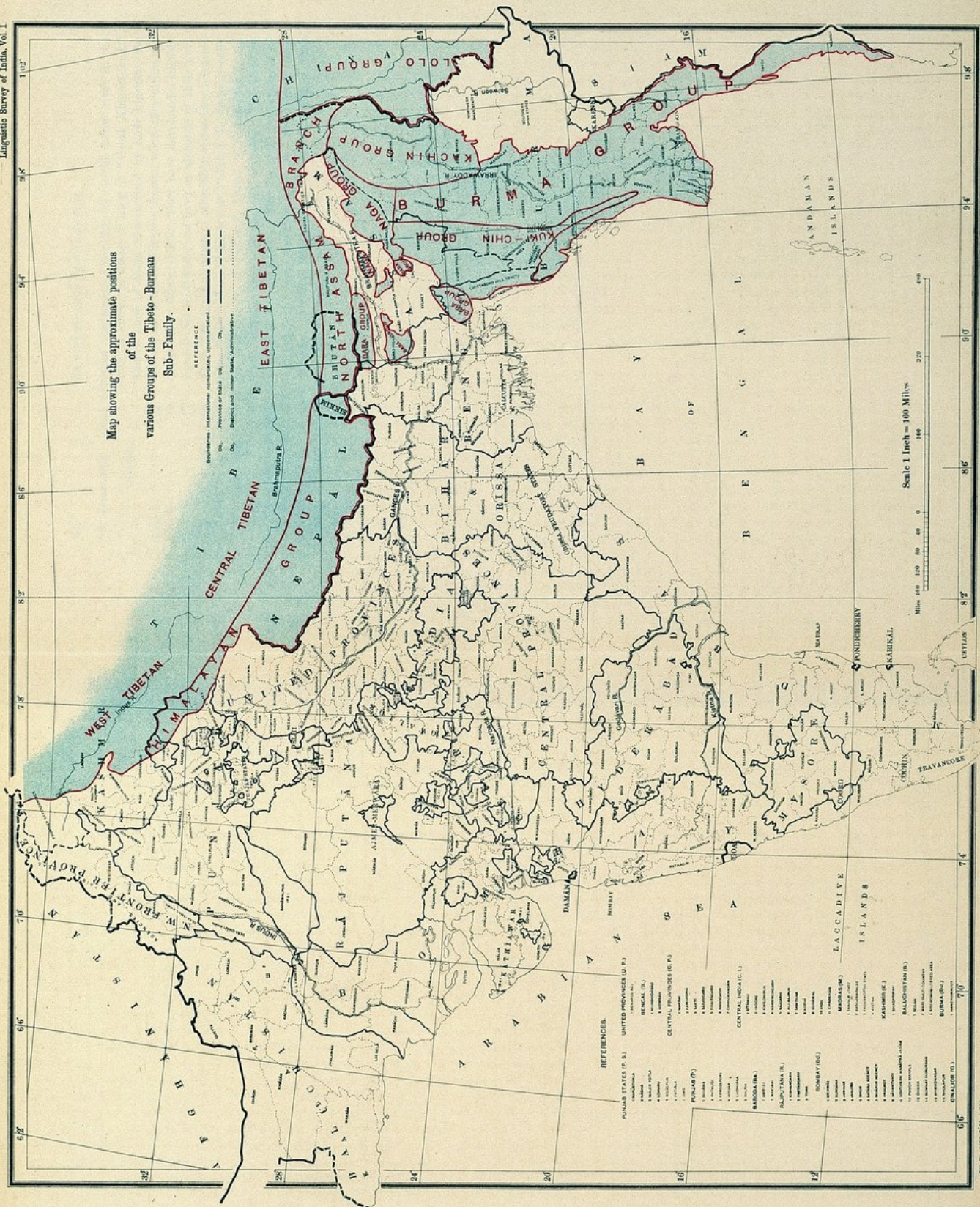
the Irrawaddy. Their principal settlement was high up on the latter river in the

Khāmtī.		
		Survey.
Khāmtī	.	2,930
Phākial	.	625
Tai-rong	.	150
Norā	.	300
TOTAL	.	4,005

Aiton Shān.

of them were counted in the operations of this Survey. The Tai-rongs were enslaved by the Kachins *en route*, and all, or nearly all, now speak Singphō, the language of their masters. A few of them, together with the Phākials and the Norās, speak a Shān dialect, differing little, if at all, from Khāmtī.

country known as Khām-tī Long or "Great Khāmtī-land." Thence some of them were invited by their kinsmen, the Āhoms, and settled in Eastern Assam, where they ultimately ousted their former hosts. They have developed a slightly varying dialect of Shān, and have an alphabet of their own. Since then small numbers of other Shān tribes have migrated into Assam, who are known as Phākials, Tai-rongs (locally called Turungs), Norās, and Aitons. The last-named still speak Burmese Shān, and use that alphabet. Two hundred



CHAPTER VI.—THE TIBETO-BURMAN SUB-FAMILY.

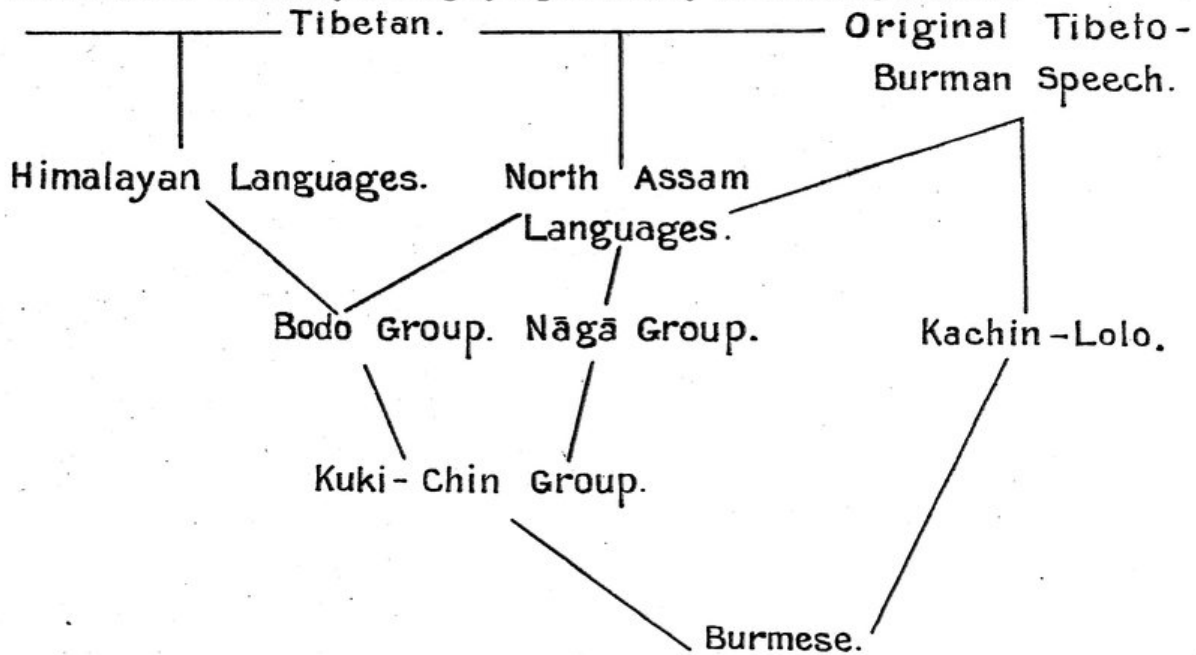
We have seen that the Tibeto-Burman people first of all split into two branches, one going north and west along the valley of the Sanpo into Tibet, and the other remaining on the south side of the Himalaya to populate Assam and Burma. So early an ethnical division naturally leads us to expect a corresponding division of languages, and such indeed is the case. Philologists have hitherto divided the Tibeto-Burman sub-family into two main branches, the Tibeto-Himalayan, and the Assam-Burmese or Lohitic. To these we must add a third, miscellaneous group, which, for the sake of convenience, we may call the North Assam Branch. So far as up to the present has been ascertained, this last occupies an intermediate position between the two others, and is spoken by tribes whose ancestors appear to have migrated thither independently, and at different times, from the original

	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Tibeto-Himalayan . . .	399,742	440,263
North Assam . . .	36,910	80,482
Assam-Burmese . . .	1,543,655	11,438,266
TOTAL . . .	1,980,307	11,959,011

nidus of the Tibeto-Burman race. On the margin I give the number of speakers recorded for each branch in this Linguistic Survey and in the Census of 1921. For the Assam-Burmese Branch the Survey figures are much less than those of the Census, as the former did not cover anything like the whole Assam-Burmese area. Accessions of territory, or a widening sphere of political interest, accounts for the large number of speakers of the North Assam branch recorded in the Census.

This division of the Tibeto-Burman languages is not, however, so simple as it seems. The question is considered in detail on pp. 10ff. of Volume III, Part i, of this Survey, and here it must suffice to give the broad results so far as we have been able to ascertain them. The most northern representative of the Tibeto-Himalayan Branch is Tibetan, and the most southern representative of the Assam-Burmese Branch is Burmese. Between them lie all the other Tibeto-Burman languages. The two extremes are connected along two distinct linguistic chains. The eastern chain consists of the Kachin and Lolo forms of speech, which connect Tibetan directly with Burmese. The western chain is at first a pair of chains each beginning in a different locality, but joining together lower down, like the letter Y. The joint chain then goes on and ends again in Burmese. The eastern limb of this Y begins with the miscellaneous forms of speech which make up the North Assam Branch and continues through dialects of the Naga Hills into those of the Bodo and Kuki-Chin groups, where it meets the other, western, limb. The latter begins with those dialects of Tibetan which have crossed the Himalayan watershed from the North and have occupied the southern face of that range. These also lead us into Bodo and

Kuki-Chin. The joined eastern and western limbs then lead us, like Kachin and Lolo, into Burmese. This may be roughly represented by the following diagram :—



The localities in which these groups are severally spoken are shown in the map facing the preceding page.

Tibeto-Himalayan Branch.

Tibeto-Himalayan Branch.

	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Tibetan Group	205,508	231,885
Non-pronominalized Himalayan Group.	100,256	100,537
Pronominalized Himalayan Group.	93,978	107,841
TOTAL	399,742	440,263

Tibetan Group.

	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Tibetan	7,968	8,995
Balti and Purik	130,678	143,366
Ladakhi	29,806	33,302
Dä-njong-kä	20,000	10,046
Lhoke	5,079	10,526
Others	11,977	20,650
TOTAL	205,508	231,885

The Tibeto-Himalayan Branch falls more easily into three well defined groups. The first, or Tibetan, Group consists of those forms of speech which we may call by their general Indian name of 'Bhōṭiā,' and of which the most prominent representative is Tibetan, or the Bhōṭiā of Tibet.

This last named language hardly concerns us, as the Survey does not extend to Tibet proper, but other forms of Bhōṭiā, which from another point of view may be looked upon as dialects of Tibetan, are found in Baltistan and Ladakh, and have crossed the Himalaya into the northern parts of Lahoul, Spiti, Kunawar, the State of Garhwal, Kumaun, Nepal, Sikkim and Bhutan. Tibetan proper

possesses tones, due to the loss of old prefixes, but as we go westwards into Ladakh and Baltistan we find many prefixes still in vigorous existence, and, as a consequence, no tones in use. Standard Tibetan has a great literature, but the others are mostly corrupt dialects with no written records.

The presence of the few speakers of standard Tibetan in British India is accidental, and need not detain us long. Nevertheless, from the point of view of philology and on

account of its literature, the language is of great importance, and, though there are so few speakers in India, its connexion with India is intimate. It was from India that Tibet received the Buddhist religion and the scriptures that explained it. Tibet's very alphabet is of Indian origin, and its earliest literature, dating from the 7th century A.D., consists mainly of translations of Indian books, many of which are now lost in their original form. It was these translations that changed the rude speech of the Tibetans into a copious literary language capable of reproducing the infinite wealth of Sanskrit in a manner at once literal and faithful to the spirit of the original.¹

The standard form of Tibetan is that spoken in Central Tibet, in the provinces of Ü and Tsang, and several dialects spoken in other parts of that country have been catalogued in Volume III, Pt. i of this Survey. So far as India is concerned, it will be sufficient to consider two groups of dialects, — an Eastern and a

Lhoke.
Dä-njong-kä.
Sharpa.
Kagate.

Western. The Eastern includes Lhoke, the language of Bhutan; Dä-njong-kä, the form of Tibetan spoken in Sikkim; Sharpa and Kagate of Nepal, and minor dialects found in Kumaun and the State of Garhwal. In Ladakh and Baltistan we find the Western Group. Ladakhī has been sufficiently

studied to have a dictionary, and several texts in the dialect have been published by Mr. Francke and other missionaries stationed at Leh.

Baltī.

Baltī, with a peculiar character of its own, now obsolete, owns some historical books, but cannot now be called a language with a literature. At the present day, the population being Musalmān, the Persian character is used for writing it, and in this medium we have translations of the Gospels and a few Christian tracts published in the modern language. Immediately to the East of Baltī, between it

Purik.

and Ladakhī, lies the closely allied Purik, and, for statistical purposes, the two dialects have been treated as one with a joint total for the number of their speakers. As already stated, Baltī and Ladakhī to a large extent retain the ancient prefixes lost by standard Tibetan, and consequently they have not developed tones.

The above Tibeto-Burman languages are all forms of speech which can at once be recognized as dialects of the Bhōtiā of Tibet (*i.e.* Tibetan).

Himalayan Dialects.

Several of them have crossed the Himalayan watershed and are now spoken on the south side of the great range. Their arrival there must have been at a comparatively late period, for their speakers still acknowledge the relationship with the parent language. But there is an older set of languages of the same sub-family, which must have crossed the Himalaya from the North before the language of Tibet had established itself in its present form, and which have, in the sites where we now find them, had their own history and, independently of Tibetan, their own development, although their more distant relationship with that language cannot be denied. These are called the "Himalayan" Tibeto-Burman languages, and their general characteristics are thus described by Professor Konow²:—

These languages are all Tibeto-Burman forms of speech, although in many of them we can observe several features which are not in accordance with Tibeto-Burman principles. Thus, a difference is often made between such words as denote animate beings and inanimate things, respectively; higher numbers are often counted in twenties and not in tens as is the case in Tibetan, Burmese, Chinese, Siamese, etc. the personal

¹ See Preface to Jäschke's Tibetan Dictionary, p. iv.

² Vol. III, Pt. i, p. 179. With a few verbal alterations.

pronouns often have a dual in addition to the ordinary plural, and double sets of the dual and plural of the first person, one including and the other excluding the person or persons addressed; there is in many dialects a tendency to distinguish the person of the subject by adding pronominal suffixes to the verb, so that a kind of regular conjugation is effected, and so forth.

In such characteristics the dialects in question have struck out lines of their own, in entire disagreement with Tibeto-Burman, or even Tibeto-Chinese, principles. They have accordingly become modified in their whole structure. It is difficult to help inferring that this state of affairs must be due to the existence of an old heterogeneous substratum of the population, which has exercised an influence on the language. That old population must then have spoken dialects belonging to a different linguistic family, and the general modification of the inner structure of the actual forms of speech must be due to the fact that the leading principles of those old dialects have been engrafted on the languages of the tribes in question. Now it will be observed that all these features in which the Himalayan dialects differ from other Tibeto-Burman languages are in thorough agreement with the principles prevailing in the Munḍā forms of speech. It therefore seems probable that Munḍās, or tribes speaking a language connected with those now in use among the Munḍās, have once lived in the Himalaya and have left their stamp on the dialects there spoken at the present day.

The non-Tibeto-Burman characteristics mentioned above are seldom found together in one and the same form of speech, and some of the dialects under consideration have few if any traces of them. On the other hand, some of these features, such as the distinction between an inclusive and an exclusive plural of the first personal pronoun, have penetrated much further and are, *e.g.*, found in the western dialects of Tibetan. If we consider only the formation of verbs, the most interesting feature of Tibeto-Burman languages, it will be found that Hodgson's¹ classification into non-pronominalized and pronominalized languages holds good for the entire field of Himalayan philology. We shall therefore adhere to it in the ensuing pages and consider the Himalayan dialects under two different headings, non-pronominalized and pronominalized dialects.

The latter group we shall further subdivide into two sub-groups, one comprising several dialects spoken in the east of the valley of Nepal, and the other consisting of some forms of speech found in Kumaun and further towards the West.

The Non-pronominalized dialects are spoken in Central and Eastern Nepal, and further to the East, in Sikkim and Bhutan.

Non-pronominalized Himalayan Languages.

	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Gurung	5,211
Murmi	36,848	38,512
Sunwār	5,356	4,132
Māgarī	16,979	20,536
Nēwārī	5,979	10,134
Róng or Lepcha . . .	34,894	20,569
Others	200	1,443
TOTAL	100,256	100,537

As most of them are spoken in Nepal, the statistics given on the margin are necessarily incomplete, for the numbers given represent only those speakers (mostly soldiers in our Gorkhā regiments or immigrants to Darjiling) who were found in India Proper. The bulk of the speakers, who reside in Nepal, is altogether omitted from consideration. On the other hand, thanks to the kindness of the Nepal Government, the Survey has been supplied with very complete specimens of most of these languages, and it is possible to give fairly good accounts of them, even if we do not know how many people speak them.

The influence of the ancient language of the Munḍā type is not so prominent in these languages as in those of the pronominalized group. There are nevertheless distinct traces of its previous importance, and we may assume with considerable probability that here we have a case of the old influence receding before that of Tibetan and of the Bodo languages spoken immediately to the East. We appear to have a clear example of this in Sunwār. In Hodgson's days it was a pronominalized language, but, if the specimens received for the Survey are to be trusted, it is so no longer. Hodgson's Essay was written in 1847, so that, allowing for the date when the specimens for the Survey were received, this change took place in little more than half a century. As we know how rapidly Tibeto-Burman languages which have no literature to act as a conservative influence do change, this short period need not surprise us, and it is pretty

¹ Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, p. 105.

certain that in all these languages the *Mundā* characteristics were much stronger two or three centuries ago than they are now. On the other hand we also see in these non-pronominalized languages links connecting them with the Bodo Group. Whether they are naturally inherent in the languages or have been borrowed from the neighbouring languages we do not know, but, either way, it is the presence of these links which cause the Himalayan languages to form the western limb of the letter Y alluded to on page 53.

The head-quarters of Gurung, Murmi, Sunwār, Māgarī, and Nēwārī are in Nepal, and most of the speakers recorded for the Survey were found in Darjiling and the neighbourhood, where they formed an overflow from that country. Elsewhere in British India the speakers were chiefly found in Gorkhā regiments. Only one of them, Nēwārī, has any literature. Before the Gorkhā invasion the Nēwārs were the ruling race of the country, and the name of the tribe is only another form of the word 'Nēpāl.' Nēwārī was thus the state language of the country until the overthrow of the Nēwār dynasty in 1769. Buddhism was introduced into Nepal at a very early date, and, though Sanskrit accompanied it as the language of sacred books, Nēwārī also soon became used for literary purposes. Most Nēwār books are commentaries on, or translations of, Sanskrit Buddhist works current in Nepal, but from the fourteenth century inscriptions in the language began to appear, and we have other survivals in the shape of indigenous dictionaries, grammars, and dramatic works with stage directions in Nēwārī. The oldest Nēwārī book with which we are acquainted was written in the 14th century, and is a historical account of the chief events in Nepal from A.D. 1056 to 1388. The language has an alphabet of its own and has received some study from Russian and German scholars, but the only Englishman who has examined it was Hodgson, and even he did not give it any special attention.

Another interesting language of this group is Róng or, as the Nepalese nickname it, Lepcha. It is the principal language of Sikkim, and has an alphabet of its own and a literature which is said to consist mainly of works on Buddhist theology and connected subjects. As it is spoken within easy reach of Darjiling it has attracted the attention of English scholars, and has been provided with a grammar and dictionary written on European lines.

In the Pronominalized group the influence of the ancient *Mundā* language is far more apparent. In all of them we notice the characteristic idiom of suffixing personal pronouns to the verb to indicate not only the subject but also, often, the direct and indirect objects. When a Limbu wishes to say 'I strike him,' he turns both the 'I' and the 'him' into suffixes added to the verb. 'Strike' is *hip*, 'him' is *-tū*, and 'I' is *-ng*, so he says *hiptūng*, which it will be remembered is exactly parallel to the Santālī example given on page 37. Some of the languages of this group follow the *Mundā* system of counting the higher numbers in twenties. Only two follow the Tibetan system of counting by tens, and the rest have embarrassed comparative philology by borrowing the Indo-Aryan numerals. In Tibetan and the languages allied to it there is a complicated system for expressing pronouns. But the various forms are due to the exigencies of etiquette, and each implies a different degree of politeness, just as in many other oriental languages we hear such expressions as 'this poor slave' used instead of an uncompromisingly egotistical 'I.'

But in these pronominalized languages, though there is great variation of pronominal forms, this is based on an altogether different principle. Exactly as in Munḍā, there are three forms indicating number,—a singular, a dual, and a plural,—for each person, and for the first person we have even greater diversity, there being separate duals for 'I and thou,' and 'I and he,' and plurals for 'I and you,' and 'I and they.' In some of the Western dialects we even find what might almost be called instances of borrowing of Munḍā words, and a relic of Munḍā or Mōn-Khmēr pronunciation in the checked final consonants which have been described on pages 37 and 48.

As stated above, these pronominalized languages fall into two groups, an Eastern and a Western, which, so far as the materials available show, are separated from each other by a comparatively wide extent of country. The Eastern group is confined to Eastern Nepal and the neighbourhood,—the so-called 'Kirānt'¹ country, owing to which they were appropriately named by Hodgson, 'the Kirānti Dialects.' As they all inhabit this tract figures are available for only a few of them, and these refer only to settlers in Darjiling and thereabouts and in no way indicate the true numbers of the speakers of

Eastern Pronominalized Group.

Dhimal.
Thāmi.
Limbu.
Yākha.
Khambū (with 16 dialects).
Rai or Jimdār.
Vāyu.
Chēpāng.
Kusūnda.
Bhrāmu.
Thaksya.

these forms of speech. I therefore omit all figures in the list given on the margin. Those curious in the matter can refer to the incomplete figures given in Appendix I (p. 392). All these languages have been described by Hodgson, some very briefly, and others,—especially Dhimal, Bāhing (a Khambū dialect), and Vāyu,—at considerable length. Limbū has a full modern grammar from the pen of Colonel Senior, but

regarding the rest, practically nothing is known beyond the materials collected by Hodgson and the subsequent information collected for the Linguistic Survey.

We know more about the Western Group of the pronominalized languages, as they are all spoken in British India. They possess all the Munḍā characteristics that

Western Pronominalized Himalayan Group.

	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Manchāṭi	2,995	...
Chamba Lāhuli	1,387	...
Bunān and Rānglōi	2,987	...
Kanāshi	980	539
Kanauri	13,099	22,098
Rangkas	614	...
Darmiyā	1,761	7
Chaudāngsi	1,485	...
Byāngsi	1,585	...
Janggali	200	89
TOTAL	27,093	22,733²

distinguish the Eastern Group, and it is here,—in Kanauri and a neighbouring dialect,—that we find the checked final consonants to which reference has already been made. The most important of these languages is the Kanauri (also written Kanāwari) spoken in Kanawar, sixty or seventy miles north-east of Simla. It has received some study, and has been given a grammar and a vocabulary written by Europeans or compiled under their encouragement. Parts of the Bible have also been translated into it. Kanāshi is a curious

¹ This name recalls the fabulous *Kirātas* of Sanskrit literature. Similarly, the Yākhas remind us of another fabulous people, the *Yakshas*.

² The Census figures for these languages are very incomplete. It is probable that they have all been confused with, and returned as, Tibetan.

lonely language spoken in an isolated glen in Kulu, to the north-west of Kanauri, with which it has many points of resemblance. Being surrounded on all sides by speakers of Kului, an Indo-Aryan language, it has naturally borrowed from it a portion of its vocabulary, but the character of the language as a whole clearly points to a connexion with Kanauri. Manchāṭi, Chamba Lāhulī, Bunān, and Ranglōi are spoken still farther to the north-west in the mountainous country of Lahul, Chamba, and Kangra. They have received attention from the Ladakh missionaries, and gospels have been translated into Manchāṭi and Bunān. The remaining languages of this group are spoken a long way to the east, in the mountain ranges of the north of Kumaun. Nothing is known of them except what is recorded in the Survey, and that is but little; but, with one exception, it is sufficient to show that they belong to this group. The exception is Janggālī, of which the Survey failed to obtain any satisfactory specimens. The name indicates the wildness of its forest speakers, and all that we can say with certainty is that it is a member of the Tibeto-Burman sub-family. It has been classed with the others, for the present, merely on account of its geographical position.

The above remarks conclude our survey of the Himalayan Tibeto-Burman dialects. As previously pointed out, the indications of the ancient Muṇḍā influence on these forms of speech is a matter of the greatest interest. It connects languages spoken in Lahul, Chamba, and Kanāwar with the Muṇḍā languages of Central India, and, through them, with the Khāsi spoken in Assam, and with the Mōn-Khmēr languages of Further India. These last lead us on to the tongues of Indonesia and Polynesia till we arrive at Easter Island. Roughly speaking, we find this Austric Family of languages extending from 80° east longitude to 110° west longitude, a total of 170 degrees longitude, or very nearly half way round the world. Excepting the Indo-European (which has in modern times spread from Europe to America) it is the most widely extended of any of the language families of the earth.

North Assam Branch.

In describing the progress of the migrations of the Tibeto-Burman tribes, I have stated that, after the Tibetan branch had entered Tibet along the course of the Sanpo, some of its members crossed the Himalaya and appeared on the southern slope of that range. Of these, the most eastern are the inhabitants of Bhutan and Towang. East of them, extending from Towang up to and beyond the extreme eastern corner of Assam, the hills north of the Brahmaputra are occupied by four tribes, the correct classification of whose languages is a matter of considerable doubt. These are, in order, going from west to east, the Akas, Angkas, or Hrusso; the Daflās; the Abor-Miris; and the Mishmis. Most of these people live outside settled British territory. Our knowledge of them is therefore incomplete, and the figures shown on the margin in no way represent the

North Assam Branch.		
	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Aka or Hrusso	20	71
Abor	170	13,317
Miri	35,510	65,289
Daflā	990	959
Mishmi	220	846
TOTAL	36,910	80,482

real numbers of the speakers, but only those who were found in British territory. The Akas or Angkas, as they are called by their neighbours, or Hrusso, as they call themselves, dwell in the hills north of Darrang, in a corner between Towang and Assam. Of all the North Assam languages we know least about theirs. An attempt was made

to gain further information concerning it for the purposes of the Survey, but our one authority, the Aka chief whose presence and help had been secured, preferred the freedom of his native hills to philology, and disappeared before the work was finished, leaving our information tantalizingly incomplete. Robinson gave us a short vocabulary in 1841, Hesselmeier a fuller one in 1868, and J. D. Anderson another in 1896.¹ The first differs altogether from the two latter, and is apparently really a corrupt Daflā. The Aka of Hesselmeier and Anderson is certainly a Tibeto-Burman language, but it appears to have strange and peculiar phonetic laws which cause it to differ widely from the speech of any other language of the branch. Even the numerals and the pronouns have special forms, though, on the other hand, its vocabulary shows points of contact with Daflā, which do not seem to be due to borrowing. There are very few of the tribe, or of the Daflās in British territory.

Aka.

Daflā,

East of the Akas lie the Daflās, east of them the Miris, and east of them, on both sides of the Dihang river, the Abors. The Miris and the Abors speak the same language, with only dialectic variations, and this is closely connected with Daflā. We know a good deal about

Abor-Miri.

Abor-Miri and Daflā. Robinson gave us grammars of both in the middle of the last century, and, to omit mention of less important notices, in later times Mr. Needham has given us a grammar and Mr. J. H. Lorrain a dictionary of the former, and Mr. Hamilton a grammar of the latter. We have seen that Aka and Daflā have points of contact in vocabulary, and at the other end of the chain Abor shows signs of affinity to the nearest form of the Mishmi language.

The Mishmis, who inhabit the hills north of Sadiya, are divided into four tribes, speaking three distinct dialects. The most western are the

Mishmi.

Chulikatā.

who occupy the valley of the Dihang with the adjoining hills, and, to their east, the Mithun or Bebejiyā (outcaste) Mishmis. These appear to speak the same dialect, or language, but about it we know hardly anything. We have only an imperfect vocabulary collected by Sir George Campbell. Even the indefatigable Robinson failed to get specimens of it. All that he can say is 'they speak a language peculiar to themselves, yet bearing some affinity to that spoken by their neighbours the Abors and Miris.' East of the Bebejiyās lie the

Digāru.

Mijū.

Taying or Digāru Mishmis, beyond the Digāru river. The Mijū Mishmis are still further east, towards the Lama valley of Dzayul, a sub-prefecture of Lhasa. Robinson has given us grammars and vocabularies of both of these, and Mr. Needham has also written a Digāru vocabulary. The two dialects, or languages, are very different.

The North Assam Branch of the Tibeto-Burman tongues is, it must be confessed, a

General conclusions as to the
North Assam Branch.

rather haphazard collection of languages grouped on geographical rather than on philological principles. Our one certain conclusion is a negative one,—that they can be classed neither as Tibeto-Himalayan, nor as Assam-Burmese, though they are connected with both. Their territory is a kind of backwater over which various waves of Tibeto-Burman immigration have swept, each leaving its record in the speech of the inhabitants. They all show points of agreement with one or other of the two remaining branches of Tibeto-Burman

¹ Sir George Campbell also printed an Aka vocabulary in 1874, which is again different.

speech, and, on the whole, they can be described as links which connect the Tibeto-Himalayan languages with the Assam-Burmese Bodo, Nāgā, Kuki-Chin, and Kachin.

Assam-Burmese Branch.

The probable race history of the tribes which employ the forms of speech belonging to the Assam-Burmese branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages has been glanced at in the preceding pages, and more details will be given further on. This branch is further divided into the following groups:—the Bodo, the Nāgā, the Kachin, the Kuki-Chin, the Burma, the Lolo-Mos'o and the Sak or Lūi. Of these the only groups that have been examined each as a whole in this Survey are the Bodo and the Nāgā. The Kachin, the

Assam-Burmese Branch.		
Group.	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Bodo . . .	614,659	715,696
Nāgā . . .	292,799	338,634
Kachin . . .	1,920	151,194
Kuki-Chin . . .	567,625	796,314
Burma . . .	62,652	9,325,595
Lolo-Mos'o	75,686
Sak (Lūi)	25,145
TOTAL . . .	1,543,656	11,438,266

Kuki-Chin, the Sak, and the Burma have been partly examined, as some of the languages belonging to them fell within the area of its operations, but by far the greater number of the languages of these four groups belong to Burma, and have not been touched by this Survey at all. Finally, the Survey has not touched any languages at all of the Lolo-Mos'o group. The gaps left by this Survey will be filled up in due course

by the proposed Linguistic Survey of Burma, and, pending its completion, I do not propose, so far as the languages of Burma are concerned, to do more than refer very briefly to them, adopting so far as may be the classification authorized by our very incomplete knowledge. It is quite possible that this classification may have to be seriously altered when the Burma researches are completed. For Bodo and Nāgā and for some of the Kuki-Chin languages, we are on firmer ground, and I shall enter into the subject in greater detail. As regards all these groups, we may say that according to our present knowledge, the Bodo and Nāga groups are those most closely connected with the Tibeto-Himalayan languages, while the Kuki-Chin and Burma groups display more independent characteristics. Between these two extremes lie the Kachin and Lolo-Mos'o groups, the former being more nearly related to Kuki-Chin and the latter to Burmese. The Sak (Lūi) group requires separate consideration, and seems to represent the outcome of one of the earliest Tibeto-Burman swarms.

The group of tribes known as Bodo or Bārā forms the most numerous and important

Bodo Group.		
	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Kāchārī or Bodo . . .	272,231	271,612
Lālūng . . .	40,160	10,383
Dimā-sā . . .	18,681	11,040
Gārō . . .	139,763	216,117
Koch . . .	10,300	16,165
Rābhā . . .	31,370	22,545
Tipurā . . .	105,850	163,720
Chutiya . . .	304	4,113
Morān	1
TOTAL . . .	618,659	715,696

section of the non-Aryan tribes of the Province of Assam. Linguistic evidence shows that at one time they extended over the whole of the present province west of Manipur and the Naga Hills, excepting only the Khasi and Jaintia Hills, which are inhabited by people speaking Khāsī, a language of a different family,—the Austro-Asiatic. To the north of the Khasi Hills they occupy the whole, or nearly the whole, of the Brahmaputra Valley. To the west they have made the Garo Hills their own. To the south

they spread over the plains of Cachar and, further, over the present State of Hill Tippera. On the east their sphere of influence was bounded by Manipur and the wild tribes of the Naga Hills. Between the latter and the Khasi Hills an important tribe of them were settled in the hills of North Cachar. One branch of the family, popularly known as the Kōch, extended their power to far wider limits, and overran the whole of northern Bengal at least as far west as Purnea.

During the course of centuries the members of the Bodo family have suffered much from external pressure. From the east, in the year 1228 A.D. there began the incursion of the Āhoms, a Tai race, who occupied the Brahmaputra Valley, and ruled it for centuries till we annexed it, so that, in that neighbourhood, we know of powerful Kōch kingdoms only in Western Assam and in Cooch, or Kōch, Bihar. To the east the Bodo tribes sank into insignificance, and, except where the mountainous nature of their homes has enabled them to maintain their independence, their members can now only be identified in communities of a few hundreds each.

The Bodo country was also invaded from the south, and this within the last two centuries. Pressed forward by their co-tribesmen beyond them, Kuki hordes left the Lushai and Chin Hills and migrated north, settling in Manipur, the Cachar plains, and more especially in the hill country of North Cachar, where the population is now mixed, partly Bodo and partly Kuki.

But the most important invasion was that of Aryan culture from the west. With its language, it has occupied the plains of Dacca, Sylhet, and Cachar, so that the Bodos of the Garo Hills are now separated from their kinsmen of Hill Tippera by a wide tract filled with a population speaking an Aryan language. So, too, with the valley of the Brahmaputra. It is now almost completely Aryanized, and the old Bodo languages are gradually dying out. The ancient kingdom of Cooch Bihar now claims Bengali as its language, the old forms of speech surviving only in a few isolated tracts. In Kamrup and Goalpara, the former head-quarters of the kingdom of Kāmarūpa, the speakers of the Aryan Assamese and Bengali are counted by hundreds, while those of Bodo are counted by tens. The very name Kōch has lost its original significance, and has now come to mean a Bodo who has become so far Hinduized that he has abandoned his proper tongue and is particular as to what he eats. Nay, many of those Bodos who still adhere to their old form of speech are trilingual. Numbers of them can speak Assamese, and in addition to this they commonly employ, not only their own pure racy agglutinative tongue, but also a curious compound mongrel made up of a Bodo vocabulary expressed in the altogether alien idiom of Assamese.

I have said above that the word "Kōch" has lost its original meaning, and now signifies a Hinduized Bodo. There is, however, in the

Kōch Language.

Madhupur Jungle on the borders of Dacca and Mymensingh, in the Garo Hills, and the neighbouring districts of the Assam Valley, a body of people, known as Pāni, *i.e.* Little, Kōch, which still speaks a language of the Bodo Group. It is nevertheless doubtful if they are Kōches at all. According to some authorities they are Gārōs who have never got beyond an imperfect stage of conversion to Hinduism, involving merely the abstinence from beef. It has been conjectured that they assumed this name of 'Little', or 'Inferior' Kōches by way of propitiating the thoroughly Hinduized Kōch power which was predominant on their borders. If the specimens of their language

which I have seen are correct, it is a mongrel Gārō largely mixed with Assamese, and is the only form of speech known at the present day by the name of Kōch. The traditions of the speakers do not, however, connect their tribe with the Gārōs. They believe that they came from the north-west, *i.e.*, where the Kōch kings formerly ruled, and they quite easily represent a tribe which had migrated from there to their present seats.

The true Kōches are now, at any rate, represented by the Kāchārī, who inhabit

Kāchārī.

Bārā or Bodo.

Nowgong, Kamrup, Goalpara, Cooch Bihar, and the neighbouring country. Towards the east of this tract they call themselves Bārā, usually mispronounced "Bodo," and have

given this name to the whole group of languages of which their tongue is a member. Towards the west they are called Meches, but everywhere their speech is the same, with a few local peculiarities. Their language is a fairly rich one, and is remarkable for the great ease with which roots can be compounded together, so as to express the most complex idea in a single "portmanteau" word. For instance, the sentence "go, and take, and see, and observe carefully" is indicated by a single word in Kāchārī. Of all the languages of the group it is the most phonetically developed, and here and there shows signs of the commencement of that true inflexion which is strange to most agglutinative languages. Another interesting fact is that in it we see going on before our eyes that process of phonetic attrition which, in all the languages of the family, has turned disyllables into monosyllables, and has created that characteristic isolating appearance of all Indo-Chinese tongues. To take an example:—the word *sā* means 'person,' and the word *fi* is a causal prefix. Hence the compound *fi-sā* means 'a made person,' *i.e.* 'a child,' for the Tibeto-Burman mind cannot grasp the abstract idea which we connote by the word 'child,' and can think of a child only in reference to its father, the person who made it. But here accent comes in. It is put on the second word of the compound, so that the *i* of *fi* is scarcely audible, and we get *f'sā*. This accounts for the origin of the word for 'child' in cognate languages. It is always a monosyllable, *fsā*, *bsā*, or something of the sort. We should never have known the real meaning of this monosyllable had we not Kāchārī for our guide. Nay, Kāchārī itself makes secondary monosyllables in this way. For instance, *rān* means 'to be dry,' but *frān*, which we now know to be contracted from *fi-rān*, means 'to make dry.'

Bodo is a language which is fairly well-known. Besides school-books, we have for the standard Bodo dialect a grammar by Endle and an excellent collection of folktales by Anderson, while Skrefsrud has given us a grammar of Mech.

Closely connected with Kāchārī is the Lālūng spoken in south-west Nowgong and the neighbourhood. It forms a link between it and Dīmā-sā.

Lālūng.

Dīmā-sā.

This last is the Bodo language spoken in the hill country of North Cachar. The name of the country in which it is

spoken has led to its being called 'Hills Kāchārī,' but this has the disadvantage of inducing the belief that it and the 'Plains Kāchārī' of Kamrup are different dialects of the same language¹. Really these two are not so nearly connected as French and Spanish. They both belong to the same linguistic group, and both, no doubt, have a

¹ The Dīmā-sā of North Cachar and the Bodo of Kamrup formed one nationality till about 1540 A.D., when the Āhoms conquered the former, who at the time occupied the Dhansiri Valley as far as the Brahmaputra, with Dīmāpur as their capital. They then retreated into the North Cachar hills. The differentiation between Dīmā-sā and standard Bodo has therefore probably taken place since that date. Up to that time there had been free communication between the two branches.

common ancestor, but, at the present day, they are quite distinct forms of speech, and it is best to call Hills Kāchārī by the title which its speakers give to themselves, Dīmā-sā. Since it was described in the Survey, it has been given a grammar and vocabulary by Mr. Dundas. It has a dialect of its own spoken in south Nowgong called Hojai.

Hojai.

Chutiya.

Going still further up the Assam Valley, we find the most eastern of the Bodo languages, the Chutiya, which is fast dying out. It is spoken only by a few Deoris, who form the priestly caste of the Chutiya tribe. They have preserved, in the midst of a number of alien races, the language, religion, and customs which they brought about a hundred years ago from the country east of Sadiya, and which, we may presume, have descended to them with comparatively little change from a period anterior to the Āhom invasion of Assam. Their present seats are on the Majuli Island in Sibsagar, and on the Dikrang River in north Lakhimpur. Of all the languages of the Bodo group, owing no doubt to its religious associations, it appears to have preserved the oldest characteristics, and to approach most nearly the original form of speech from which they are all derived. It and Kāchārī represent the two extremes, the least developed and the most developed of the group. Like the latter, it exhibits the remarkable facility for forming compound verbs to which attention has already been drawn. This is probably a characteristic of all the dialects of the Bodo group, but it is only these two which have been thoroughly studied, so that we cannot as yet be certain about the others.

Returning to western Assam, we have next to consider Gārō, or, as its speakers call

Gārō.

it, Māndē Kusik, the language of men. Its proper home is the Garo Hills, but its speakers have overflowed into the plains at their feet, and have even crossed the Brahmaputra into Cooch Bihar and Jalpaiguri. Gārō, in its standard dialect, has received some literary cultivation at the hands of local missionaries, and, besides possessing a version of the Bible, has a printed dictionary, school books, religious and other works. It has a number of dialects which bear a strong resemblance to each other, though to a foreigner learning to converse with the natives the differences are striking enough. That known as Ātong or Kuchu presents the greatest variations, and Gārōs from other parts of the Garo Hills can make themselves fairly well understood wherever they go except in the Ātong country. It is spoken in the lower Someswari Valley which lies south-east of the Garo Hills, and in the north-east of the District of Mymensingh. It appears to approach most nearly the original language from which the various dialects are derived, for we meet typical Ātong peculiarities in the most widely separated localities, where Gārō, in a more or less

Rābhā.

corrupt form, is spoken. A language closely connected with Gārō is Rābhā, which has most speakers in the District of Goalpara but which is dying out. Rābhā seems to be a Hindū name for the tribe, and many men so called are pure Kāchārīs. At one time they formed the fighting clan of the Bodo family, and members of it joined the three Assam regiments before they took to recruiting Gōrkhās.

The remaining important language of the Bodo Group is Tipurā. Its home is the

Tipurā.

State of Hill Tippera and the adjoining portion of the Chittagong Hill Tracts, but speakers of it are also found in Dacca, Sylhet, and Cachar. The Chittagong Hill Tracts people call it Mrung. It shows points of connexion with both Dīmā-sā and Gārō, and generally has all the characteristics of

the group in which it is included. An interesting point is that the word for 'man' is *bārāk*, which is almost identical with the name Bārā by which the Kāchāris of Kamrup and the neighbourhood call themselves.

To complete the survey of this group, we may mention Morān, a language which is believed to be now extinct. The Morāns were the first tribe

Morān. conquered by the Āhoms when they entered Assam from over the Patkoi. They became the Gibeonites of their vanquishers, being employed by them as carriers of firewood, and are still found in Sibsagar and Lakhimpur. Their language belonged to the Bodo group, but they have nearly all abandoned it in favour of Assamese.

While the number of speakers of languages belonging to the Nāgā Group is less than half that of those whose mother speech is Bodo, the number of Nāgā languages is more than four times as many. The

Sub-groups.		Survey.	Census of 1921.
Nāgā-Bodo	.	36,353	27,109
Western	.	68,930	88,264
Central	.	38,000	48,554
Eastern	.	10,000	...
Nāgā-Kuki	.	139,516	152,266
Unclassed	22,441
TOTAL		292,799	338,634

extraordinary diversities of speech, differences of language, not merely of dialect, which characterize the hill country between the Patkoi Range on the east, the Jaintia Hills on the west, the Brahmaputra Valley on the north, and Manipur on the south, render it one of the most interesting fields for investigation by the philologist. The Assam Valley proper is bounded on the south by ranges of hills separating it from

Orography. Sylhet and Cachar. At its western end these hills are comparatively low, and under the name of the Garo Hills are inhabited by a people speaking a language of the Bodo Group. As we go west they become the Khasi and Jaintia Hills, with summits rising more than six thousand feet above the level of the sea. Then we have a drop into the valleys of the Kapili and the Dhansiri, a country of low hills forming the subdivision of North Cachar. Further east, the general level of the tract rapidly rises up to the Patkoi, including the south of the Nowgong, Sibsagar, and Lakhimpur districts, the whole of the Naga Hills and the north of the State of Manipur. Here we have a confused mass of mountains, some of them rising to nine or ten thousand feet, which, as we go eastwards, become ranges running north and south, connected with the Himalaya through the Patkoi and the hills beyond, and extending southwards, through Manipur and the Lushai Hills, until they terminate in the sea at Cape Negrais. It is in this country, between North Cachar and the Patkoi, that the Nāgā languages are mainly spoken. The inhospitable nature of the land and the ferocity of the inhabitants have combined to foster this diversity of speech. Where communication is so difficult, intercourse with neighbouring tribes is rare, and, in former times, when heads were collected as eagerly as philatelists collect stamps and no girl would marry a young fellow who could not display an adequate store of specimens, if a meeting with a stranger did take place, the conversation was sure to be more or less one-sided. Under such circumstances, monosyllabic languages, such as those of the Nāgās, with no literature, with a floating pronunciation, with a system of taboo which is ever and anon prohibiting the further use of certain words, and with a number of loosely used prefixes and suffixes to supply the ordinary needs of grammar, are bound to change very rapidly and quite independently of each other. Cases are on record in which

members of a tribe who have emigrated but a comparatively short distance have developed a language unintelligible to the inhabitants of the parent village in two or three generations.¹

Between the Bodo and the Nāgā languages, there is an intermediate sub-group belonging in the main to the latter, but

Nāgā-Bodo Sub-Group.		
	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Ēmpēo or Kachchā Nāgā . . .	10,280	9,959
Kabui or Kapwi	11,073	15,647
Khoirāo	15,000	1,503
TOTAL	36,353	27,109

Ēmpēo.
Kabui.

Khoirāo.

though in the main it is Nāgā. Kabui and Khoirāo belong to north Manipur. As for the former all that was known about it previous to the Survey was a short vocabulary compiled by Major McCulloch in the middle of the last century. About Khoirāo nothing was known till the Survey took it in hand. The Survey figures for these two

languages were very rough estimates, with no census figures on which they could be based. Since they were recorded, these tribes have fallen within the net of two regular censuses, and the figures shown for 1921 should be taken as more accurate than those given by the Survey.

Turning to the Nāgā languages proper, we find them falling naturally into three sub-

Western Nāgā Sub-Group.		
	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Angāmi	35,410	43,050
Semā	26,400	34,883
Rengmā or Unzā	5,500	5,103
Kezhāmā	1,620	5,228
TOTAL	68,930	88,264

Angāmi.

groups, a western, a central, and an eastern. Of the western languages, the most important is Angāmi, with its two dialects, Tengimā and Chakromā, and numerous sub-dialects of which the principal are Dzunā, Kehenā, and Nāli. A good deal is known about Tengimā. Beginning in the year 1850, Hodgson, Brown, Stewart, and Butler

all have given us vocabularies, and the descriptions of the tribe by the last two are classics. We have a grammar written by McCabe in the year 1887 and a phrase-book by Mr. Rivenburg in 1905, the latter having appeared subsequently to the Survey account. Then there are the admirable accounts of the language and of the habits and customs of the tribe from the pen of Mr. A. W. Davis, which appeared in the Assam Census Report of 1891, and which have been partly reprinted in Volume III, Part ii of this Survey. Finally in 1921 we have Mr. J. H. Hutton's "The Angami Nagas," which supersedes all previous accounts of the tribe, and on pp. 291ff. of which all our previous knowledge

Kezhāmā.

Semā.

Rengmā.

regarding its language has been excellently summarized. To the east of the Angāmis are the Kezhāmās, to whose north again lie the barbarous and savage Semās. North of the Angāmis and west of the Semās are the Rengmās. Until the

account of this Survey was published nothing whatever was known to outsiders about the Kezhāmā language, and we had only short and incomplete lists of a few words each of Semā

¹ See McCabe, Angāmi Grammar, p. 4.

² In Volume III, Part ii, pp. 379ff. of the Survey, I have also included Mikir in this group, but on reconsideration of all the circumstances, I now class it as belonging to the Nāgā-Kuki Sub-Group, described below.

and Rengmā, but since then Mr. Hutton has given us a Semā grammar and vocabulary. The Rengmās call themselves by the name of Unzā, which is really the name of one of the two dialects of the language. It may be added that about half a century ago, a number of Rengmās were driven out of their proper home by the constant attacks of neighbouring tribes, and settled on a range of hills lying between the Mikir Hills in the Nowgong District and the forests of the Dhansiri. This portion of the tribe has lost most of its savage customs, and has to some extent taken to the habits of the people of the plains, while the others retain their primitive simplicity. The most characteristic feature which distinguishes these Western Nāgā languages from those of the Central Sub-Group is that in them the negative particle follows the word that it negatives, whereas in the Central Sub-Group it precedes it.

The principal members of the Central Sub-Group of the Nāgā languages are Āo and Lhōtā. Minor members are Tengsa, Thukumi and Yachumi. We have excellent grammars and vocabularies of both Āo and Lhōtā prepared by the local missionaries. The former is well known and has often been written about, but the literature concerning it is not always easy to find, as it

Central Nāgā Sub-Group.		Survey.	Census of 1921.
Āo	.	15,500	30,142
Lhōtā	.	22,000	18,412
Tengsa Nāgā	.	?	...
Thukumi	.	?	...
Yachumi	.	?	...
TOTAL, SAY		38,000	48,554

has been described under at least nine different names, some appropriate enough, and others due to misapprehension. As an instance of the latter, we may quote the name 'Assiringiā.' This is the name of a village inhabited by a 'Naked Nāgā' tribe, the members of which speak an Eastern Nāgā language. But Āos often come down from their homes to the plains through this village, and are hence wrongly given its name by the Assamese. Other names for Āo are again taken from the names of passes through which they come to the plains. Thus, those who come down through the Dop Duār Pass are called 'Dupdoria,' and those who come down by the Hatigor Duār Pass are called 'Hatigorria.' But these are names and nothing more and connote no distinction of tribe or dialect. Āo has two well-marked

dialects,—Chungli and Mongsen,—and is spoken in the north-east of the Naga Hills District. Lhōtā is spoken south of Āo about the centre of the same district, where it abuts on Sibsagar. Its speakers are generally known as Lhōtā or Tsōntsū, but they called themselves Kyō, while they are known to the Assamese as Miklai. All these names are also used to indicate the language. Tengsa, Thukumi, and Yachumi are spoken by tribes beyond the Dikhu, and outside settled British territory. Very little is known about them, but short vocabularies enable us to connect them with Āo and Lhōtā.

In the Eastern Nāgā Sub-Group are included the languages of all the other Nāgā

Eastern Nāgā Sub-Group.		Survey.	Census of 1921.
Angwāngu	}	5,000	...
Chingmēgnu.			
Banparā	}	1,600	...
Mutonā			
Mohóngiā			
Namsangiā	.	1,370	...
Chāng	.	?	...
Assiringiā	.	?	...
Mōshāng
Shānggē	.	?	...
TOTAL, SAY		10,000	...

tribes found in the tract east of the Āo country, extending to the Kachin country on the east and bounded on the south by the Patkoi Range. Within these limits there are many different tribes, some of them consisting only of a few villages, and all, or nearly all, speaking languages unintelligible the one to the other. Within twenty miles of country five or six dialects are often to be found. The information that we possess

regarding the languages spoken in this area is very scanty, but, so far as our knowledge extends at present, a strong affinity appears to exist among them all. There is also a great resemblance in the manners and customs of the Nāgās of this tract. They nearly all expose their dead upon bamboo platforms, leaving the body to rot there, the skull being preserved in the bone-house, which is to be found in nearly every village. In several of the tribes, the women go perfectly naked. In others the men. None of them have been recorded in the Census of 1921.

The most important general point about these Eastern Nāgā forms of speech is that they form a group of transition languages bridging over the gulf between the other Nāgā tongues and Kachin, the great language which lies to their east and south. Another peculiarity which deserves notice is that at least four languages of the sub-group,—Angwāngku, Chingmēgnu, Chāng, and Namsangiā,—appear to have an organic conjugation of the verb. Each tense seems to change according to the person of the subject, a state of affairs quite foreign to the other members of the Nāgā group and to Kachin, and almost foreign to the Bodo group. The Namsangiā verb (while not changing for number) has its three persons for each tense, just like Assamese or Bengali.

Taking these Eastern Nāgā languages from west to east, the first we meet are Angwāngku or Tableng, and Chingmēgnu or Tamlu. A rough estimate shows that they are spoken each by about 2,500 persons, naked savages who reside (sometimes both in the same village) in the hills on both sides of the river Dikhu, before it enters the valley of the Brahmaputra. Like so many of these Tibeto-Burman tribes they call themselves by their word for 'man',—*Kātā*. Tableng and Tamlu are the names given to them by the English after villages in which they live. They call their own languages Angwāngku and Chingmēgnu respectively. Politically their main habitat is in the extreme north-east of the Naga Hills District. Beyond the Dikhu River, outside settled British territory, we find a language called, by the Aōs, Mojung, and by its speakers, who are doubtfully estimated to be about 6,500 in number, Chāng. The Aōs call all trans-Dikhu Nāgās 'Miri', and hence the Chāngs are often alluded to by that name, which should be avoided, as leading to confusion with the altogether different Miris of the upper waters of the Subansiri. Nearly connected with Chāng is

Chāng. Banparā, with one dialect called Mutoniā, which is spoken by tribes in western and central Sibsagar to the east of Angwāngku. We have only a few lists of words belonging to this language and its dialect. At the eastern extremity of the same district lie the Mohongiās, also called Borduariās and Pāniduariās. Brown, writing in the year 1851, says that their language is the same as Namsangiā, but this is not borne out by the only available specimen of the language,—the first ten numerals published by Peal in 1872. Crossing the Sibsagar

Namsangiā. frontier, we find the Nāgās of Lakhimpur, usually known by the name of Namsangiās, but also called Jaipuriā Nāgās after the name of the village through which they mostly descend to the plains. We know more about their language than we do about any others of the Eastern Sub-Group, for Robinson published a grammar and vocabulary of it in the year 1849. Owen, Hodgson, Peal, Sir George Campbell, and Butler have also given us more or less extended lists of words. Since then nothing seems to have been done regarding them. Indeed at

the present day local Europeans seem to know much less about the languages of Sibsagar and Lakhimpur than did their predecessors of two generations ago. Even the Linguistic Survey has failed to obtain any additional information concerning them. The list of Eastern Nāgā languages is completed by a reference to Mōshāng and Shānggē, the languages of two tribes in the wild country south of the Patkoi. Further to the east and south we have the great Kachin country, the main language of which is Kachin or Singphō. It forms a link between the Nāgā and Tibetan languages on the one side and Burmese on the other, and also leads, through the Meithei of Manipur, from Nāgā and Tibetan into the Kuki-Chin group.

There is, moreover, another chain of connexion between Nāgā and Kuki, the Nāgā-Kuki Sub-Group of languages, which, on the other side, corresponds to the Nāgā-Bodo Sub-Group already mentioned as leading from Nāgā into Bodo. The most important of these is Mikir, the headquarters of which are now in the hills that bear the same name in the Nowgong District of Assam, and which is also spoken in slightly varying dialectic forms in South Kamrup, the Khasi and Jaintia Hills,

Nāgā-Kuki Sub-Group.		Survey.	Census of 1921.
Mikir.	.	89,516	109,123
Sopvomā	.	10,000	13,096
Marām	.	2,500	3,522
Miyāngkhāng	.	5,000	...
Kwoireng	.	5,000	...
Tāngkhul	.	26,000	24,170
Maring	.	1,500	2,355
TOTAL	.	139,516	152,266

North Cachar, and the Naga Hills. Small fragments of the tribe are also found elsewhere, and it cannot be doubted that in former times the Mikirs occupied a comparatively large tract of country in the lower Hills and adjoining lowlands of the central portion of the range stretching from the Garo Hills to the Patkoi. As elsewhere, the Mikirs call themselves by their word for 'man,' *Ārleng*. Their language has received some attention from the missionaries who work among them. We have a vocabulary and some short pamphlets written in it, and an admirable grammar with selected texts from the pen of the late Sir Charles Lyall. In Volume III, Part ii of the Survey I have classed Mikir as falling within the Nāgā-Bodo Sub-Group. The language has affinities with Bodo, but subsequent investigation has shown that it is much more closely connected with Kuki, and that it should be classed, as here, as belonging to the Nāgā-Kuki Sub-Group, in which it occupies a somewhat independent position.

The remaining Nāgā-Kuki languages are found chiefly in the State of Manipur. As previously explained, there occurred a backwash from the south of Kuki-Chin tribes into this state, where they found Nāgā tribes already settled. We thus find here a great number of Kuki tribes, scattered over the country, each speaking a different language, and also a number of Nāgā tribes, equally scattered, and all retaining languages of the Nāgā family in a more or less corrupted condition. The hills of north Manipur lie immediately to the south of the Angāmi Nāgā country, and it is natural that here the Nāgā characteristics are retained most vigorously. It is in this locality that we find Sopvomā, used by the Nāgās of the country round Māo (whence their alternative name of 'Māo Nāgās') on the Manipur Naga Hills frontier, about twenty miles south of Kohima. It is the language

of this sub-group which most nearly approaches the true western Nāgā speech, its closest relative being Kezhāmā. South of Māo lie the Marāms, inhabiting one large village. The two tribes claim to have a common origin, but are at perpetual feud with each other. Both Brown and McCulloch have given us vocabularies of their language, which are sufficient to show that it is different from, but akin to, Sopvomā. In connexion with Marām, we may mention

Miyāngkhāng.

Kwoireng.

Miyāngkhāng or Mayangkhong classed by Damant with it and with Sopvomā. Nothing more is known about it. Here also we may insert Kwoireng or Liyāng, of which we have vocabularies by Brown and McCulloch. The tribe which speaks it inhabits the country north of Manipur town, and just south of the great Barail Range which forms the north-western boundary of the State. Immediately to their south lie the Kabui Nāgās, whose speech belongs to the Nāgā-Bodo sub-group, and their language is intermediate between that and Nāgā-Kuki. The forms taken by Kwoireng pronouns agree best with the latter, and therefore it is mentioned here, though the geographical position of its speakers would incline one to place it among the Nāgā-Bodo languages. They are a race possessed of some energy, which develops itself in trade with the Angāmis and our frontier districts.

Tāngkhul.

The large and important tribe of the Tāngkhuls occupies the north-east of the State. They are sometimes called Luhūpā or Luppā from the *luhūp*, or curious helmet of cane worn by members of the northern sections of the tribe when going into battle. But such a name is misleading, as a similar headdress is worn by the Māo Nāgās. The number of Tāngkhul dialects is said to be very great, almost every village in the interior having its separate form of speech. We may select three as typical,—Tāngkhul proper (spoken in and near the village of Ukrul), Phadāng, and Khangoi. Brown has given us three short vocabularies of Tāngkhul, and the Linguistic Survey succeeded in obtaining sufficient specimens to compile a short grammar and vocabulary. Since the latter was published, the Rev. W. Pettigrew has compiled a formal Tāngkhul grammar and vocabulary. The head-quarters of the tribe are at Ukrul, about forty miles to the north-east of Manipur town, and the same distance

Phadāng.

Khangoi.

to the south-east of the Māo tract. McCulloch has given us vocabularies of Phadāng and Khangoi. The former closely agrees with Tāngkhul, while Khangoi has much more of a Kuki complexion. The latter

Maring.

leads us to Maring, spoken by a Nāgā tribe inhabiting a few small villages in the Hirok range of hills which separates Manipur from Upper Burma. There is also a small colony of them in the Manipur Valley, about 25 miles south of the capital of the State. It has two dialects, Khoibu¹ and Maring proper, which are closely related to each other. It is the one of the Nāgā-Kuki languages which most nearly approaches the Kuki-Chin Group. The pronoun of the first person is the same as in Kuki. Both Brown and McCulloch have given us Maring vocabularies, and the Linguistic Survey has succeeded in collecting sufficient materials to compile a short grammar of the language.

The Kachin Group hardly concerns us, as most members of the tribe that speaks the languages composing it dwell in Burma, and the various forms of Kachin speech will be considered in connexion with

Kachin Group.

¹ The 'Saibu' of some writers is probably a misprint.

the Linguistic Survey of Burma. There are, however, a few Kachin speakers found in Assam, and they must be my excuse for the following remarks, which, so far as Burma is concerned, must be taken as merely provisional, pending the publication of the results of the Linguistic Survey of Burma. Another name for Kachin is, in Burma, Chingpaw, and, in Assam, Singpho. This word, in its two different forms, means properly 'a man of the Kachin tribe,' and hence 'a man' generally. The Kachins inhabit the great tract of country including the upper waters of the Chindwin and of the Irrawaddy, which lies to the east of Assam, and to the north, north-east, and north-west of the more settled parts of Upper Burma. During the last three quarters of a century they have spread a long way to the south into the Northern Shan States and the districts of Bhamo and Katha. They would probably have extended much further, if we had not annexed Upper Burma when we did; and indeed at the present moment there are isolated Kachin villages far down in the Southern Shan States and even beyond the Salwin River. Colonies of them appear to have entered Assam, where they are known as Singphos, something over a century ago. At any rate, their language shows that they must have come into that country after long contact with the Burmans. Philology and the traditions of their race alike point to the head-waters of the Irrawaddy as their original home, from which they have gradually extended, mainly along the river courses, ousting their immigrant predecessors, the Burmese and the Shans. The language of the Kachins varies greatly over the large tract of country that they occupy. They are essentially a people of the hills, and almost every hill has got its peculiar form of speech. We may, however, divide all the dialects into three classes—the northern, the Kaori, and that of the southern Kachins. The northern dialect, which we know best in the form in which it is spoken by the Singphos of Assam, has been described in the grammatical sketches of Logan, Major (afterwards Brigadier-General) Macgregor, and Mr. Needham. Southern Kachin, which is that spoken in the Bhamo district, is illustrated by those of Messrs. Hertz and Hanson, while the Kaori dialect, which is the language of the Kaori Lepais, who inhabit the hills to the east and the south-east of Bhamo, forms the basis of that written by Dr. Cushing. As regards the mutual relationship between Kachin and the other Tibeto-Burman languages, it may be said to occupy a somewhat independent position. In phonology it comes close to Tibetan; on the other hand, it is also intimately related to the Nāgā and Kuki-Chin languages and to Burmese. Among the Nāgā languages, its nearest affinities are to those that form the Eastern Sub-group. Of the Kuki-Chin languages, it shows remarkable points of resemblance to Meithei. Its relationship to Burmese has never been disputed. The inquiries made during the progress of this Survey show that Kachin, without necessarily being a transition language, forms a connecting link between Tibetan on the one hand, and Nāgā, Meithei, and Burmese on the other.

The territory inhabited by the Kuki-Chin tribes extends from the Naga Hills, Cachar, and East Sylhet on the north, down to the Sandoway district of Burma in the south; from the Myittha River in the east, nearly to the Bay of Bengal on the west. It is almost entirely filled up by hills and mountain ridges, separated by deep valleys. We find the tribes also in the Valley of Manipur and in small settlements in the Cachar plains and Sylhet. Both the

Kachin Group.

	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Kachin	1,920	151,196

Kuki-Chin Group.

names 'Kuki' and 'Chin' have been given to them by their neighbours. 'Kuki'

KUKI-CHIN SUB-GROUPS.		Survey.	Census of 1921.
Meithei		240,637	342,645
Northern Chin		60,345	83,033
Central Chin		107,604	141,668
Old Kuki		48,814	26,245
Southern Chin		110,225	35,206
Unclassed	167,517
TOTAL		567,625	796,314

is an Assamese or Bengali term applied generally to all the hill tribes of this race in their vicinity, while 'Chin' or 'Khyeng' is a Burmese word used to denote those living in the country between Burma and Assam. Neither of these terms is employed by the tribes themselves. The denomination 'Kuki-Chin' for this group of people and for the group of languages which they speak is therefore purely conventional, there being no indigenous name covering them all as a whole. The tribal languages fall into two main sub-groups, which we may conveniently call the 'Meithei' and the 'Chin.' We have already seen how it is probable that this stock migrated from the north or north-east into the Manipur Valley and there settled, while another branch of the same stock proceeded further south and filled the Lushai and Chin Hills. Assuming that this represents the true facts of the national movement,

Meithei.

Meithei represents the language of the original settlers in Manipur, and Chin that of the more southern migration. In these southern seats the language rapidly developed, partly by its own natural growth and partly by its contact with the Burmese. The development of Meithei, the language of Manipur, has, on the other hand, been slow and independent. The Manipuris are mentioned in the Shān chronicles so early as A. D. 777, and probably owing to the fact that it has in later times developed into a literary language, their present form of speech gives the impression of an archaic character. The language has an alphabet, said to have been introduced from Bengal about two centuries ago, and, written in this character, possesses a series of chronicles, carrying the history of the State as far back as the year 1432. This character is now practically obsolete, being ousted from current use by the Bengali alphabet. The language of the chronicles, too, is obsolete and is indeed intelligible only to professed scholars who have made it their business to study it. In Mr. Hodson's book 'The Meitheis' there is given a long passage in this ancient dialect with the corresponding words in modern Meithei, and there can be no better example of the rapid changes which can be undergone by a Tibeto-Burman language in the course of a few centuries. We have here two different languages with hardly a word in common, and it is difficult to believe that one is the descendant of the other. So far as I am aware, no European has ever studied the archaic dialect, and, for scientific purposes, though it would be of little practical use, a grammar of it would be of considerable value; for, between Burma and Tibet, Meithei is the only Tibeto-Burman language the history of which it would be possible to trace through at least two hundred years. For the modern language, we have now the Rev. W. Pettigrew's very full grammar, which has appeared since the Meithei section of the Survey saw the light. At the same time further information regarding this interesting language would be very welcome. We do not know if it has any dialects, and it is not improbable that further inquiries on this point would show that the apparent gulf between Meithei and the other Kuki-Chin languages is actually filled up by intermediate forms of speech. At present, this much is certain, that the modern language has preserved many traces of a more ancient stage of phonetic development, and hence sometimes agrees more closely with Burmese, and even with Tibetan, than with the Kuki-Chin languages proper. On the other hand, in certain respects it shows points of common origin with the Nāgā languages and,

especially with Kachin, being a connecting link between them and the southern, more developed, forms of speech.

The Chin forms of speech include something like forty distinct languages, which may be divided into the Northern Chin, the Central Chin, the Old Kuki, and the Southern Chin sub-groups. The Old Kuki languages are most closely connected with the Central Chin sub-group, but, for historical reasons, it will be most convenient to consider them first of all. They are

OLD KUKI SUB-GROUP.			Census of 1931.	sixteen in number, and most of them are spoken by tribes now living in Manipur, Cachar (especially the northern sub-division), Sylhet, and Hill Tippera, who migrated to their present settlements at different periods in the last three centuries from their original homes in and about
	Survey.			
Hrāngkhol	8,450	671		
Hallām	26,848	3,131		
Langrong	6,266	...		
Hmār	2,000	8,586		
Kyau or Chaw	351		
Others	5,250	13,506		
Total	48,814	26,245		

Lushai Land. Only one tribe, the Hmār, remained in its original seat, and their language is at the present day much mixed with Lushāi. The main migration to the north was indirectly due to the pressure exercised by the Lushais. These pressed the Thādos from the south, who in their turn pressed the Old Kukis northwards into their present homes. The Thādos now occupied the old home of the Old Kukis, but the irresistible progress of the Lushais northwards still continued, and the Thādos had to follow those whom they had dispossessed into almost the same localities; and as their arrival was later, they and their fellows became popularly known as New Kukis, the earlier immigrants being known as Old Kukis. "Old Kuki" connotes a distinct group of cognate tribes and languages, but "New Kuki" connotes only one tribe, the Thādos, out of five closely connected ones, the rest of whom still live in the Lushai and Chin Hills. It is therefore best to abandon the term "New Kuki," and to call the whole group of five by the name of "Northern Chins." The Lushais now occupy the old seat of the Old Kukis, and of, subsequently, the Thādos. After dispossessing the latter, they still attempted to progress north, and it was this which brought them first into hostile contact with the British power.

We thus see that there was a reflex wave of migration of the Kuki-Chin tribes, so that we find Manipur inhabited, not only by speakers of the early Meithei, but also by tribes whose native languages, once the same as an old form of that speech, have developed independently, and, owing to the want of a literature, much faster in a country far to the south.

The principal Old Kuki languages are Hrāngkhol¹, with its dialect known as Bētē, spoken in Hill Tippera and North Cachar, Hallām spoken in Sylhet and Hill Tippera, and Langrong, also spoken in the latter State. We have a grammar of Hrāngkhol by Mr. Soppitt, but, till the Linguistic Survey, very little has been known about the others. No less than eleven² languages are spoken by small Old Kuki colonies in the State of Manipur. These are Aimol (Census figures, 387), Chiru (1,577), Kolrēn (600), Kōm (2,855), Chote (264), Muntuk (nil), Karum (nil), Pūrūm (1,132), Anāl (3,065), Hiroi-Lamgāng (744), and Vaiphei

¹ Also written Rāngkhol and Hrāngchal, but Hrāngkhol is said to be the correct form.

² A slightly different list of only ten tribes is given in Colonel Shakespear's 'The Lushai Kuki Clans,' p. 151.

(2,882). The Chiru and the Anāl are mentioned in the Manipur chronicle as far back as the middle of the 16th century, and the Aimol make their first appearance therein in 1723. Regarding the others I have no information as to when they arrived. As

Hmār.

already said, Hmār is still spoken in Lushai Land, the tribe having accepted Lushai domination; and finally, far to the

Chaw.

south, on the banks of the Koladyne, we find Chaw spoken by the descendants of some Old Kuki slaves who were offered to a local pagoda by a pious queen of Arakan some three centuries ago.

The Northern Chin Sub-Group includes Thādo (with its dialects Khongzāi,

NORTHERN CHIN SUB-GROUP.

	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Thādo	31,437	33,258
Soktē	9,005	30,633
Siyin	1,770	3,143
Rāltē	18,133	5,539
Paitē	10,460
Total Thādo.	60,345	83,033

Langtung, Jangshēn, and Sairang), Soktē, Siyin, Rāltē, and Paitē. The Thādos, who are sometimes, as explained above, called New Kukis, formerly lived in the Lushai and Chin Hills, where they had established themselves after having expelled the Old Kuki Hrāngkhol and Bētē tribes. They were

themselves gradually ousted by the Lushais from the former tract and settled down in Cachar and the Naga Hills some time between 1840 and 1850. About the middle of the 18th century the Thādos of the Chin Hills were conquered by the Soktēs and were driven north into the southern hills of Manipur, where they are now found and are locally known as Khongzāis. There are now very few Thādo villages left in the Chin

Soktē.

Hills. The Soktē tribe, which includes the Soktēs proper and the Kamhows (or, as the Burmese call them, the Kanhows) occupy the northern parts of the Chin Hills, and the Siyins the hills immediately to their east, round Fort

Siyin.

White. These two last really belong to Burma, and will be dealt with in the Burmese Linguistic Survey. They are mentioned here only to

Rāltē.

complete the tale of the Northern Chins. The Rāltēs are principally found in the western parts of the Lushai Hills, but in modern times bodies of them have settled in Cachar, both in the plains and in the hills. The Paitēs are scattered all over the Lushai Hills, a few being found in almost every village. They have accepted the Dulien domination, but have retained their own language, which, however, like Rāltē, is much mixed with Lushēi.

Paitē.

The Central Chin languages are Shunkla or Tashōn, Lai, Lushei or Dulien, Banjōgi

CENTRAL CHIN SUB-GROUP.

	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Shunkla	41,215	20,754
Lai	24,550	43,731
Lushēi	40,539	77,180
Banjōgi	800	3
Pānkhū	500	...
Total	107,604	141,668

and Pānkhū. These are all closely connected with the northern sub-group, but have a still greater affinity with the Old Kuki forms of speech. The Tashōns, who call themselves Shunklas, dwell in the country south of that inhabited by the Siyins and Soktēs, and properly fall within the bounds of the

Linguistic Survey of Burma. They are mentioned here only for the sake of completing the list. They form a powerful tribe, and their country is the most thickly populated in the Chin Hills. There are several dialects of the language, and at present

Lai.

the only one of which we know more than the name is called Zahao or Yahow. Like the Shunklas, the Laïs properly

belong to Burma, although there are colonies of them whose language falls within the purview of this Survey. The Lais inhabit the middle portion of the Chin Hills, their name being said to mean 'Central.' The Burmese call them 'Baungshe' from their fashion of wearing a knot of hair over the forehead. Several dialects of Lai are spoken by the surrounding tribes, and nearly all of them also understand the standard form of that speech. This is also the case with the Shunklas, so that Lai is an important language for the purposes of administration, and has been well illustrated in a grammar

Lakher. prepared by Major Newland. Lakher, one of the dialects, is spoken in the south of the Lushai Hills. Its speakers are called Zao or Zo by the Chins. They are an offshoot of the Tlan-tlang (or, as the Burmese officers say, Klang-klang) Lais, whom the British first met on the Arakan and Chittagong frontier under the name of Shendoos.

As Lai bids fair to become the general means of communication in the Chin Hills, so Lushēi has become that of the Lushai Hills. This tract has become the scene of various migrations, new tribes at different times pushing the preceding inhabitants westwards and northwards. The Lushais, who are now the prevailing race, seem to have begun to move forwards from the south-east in the early part of the nineteenth century. Between 1840 and 1850 they obtained final possession of the North Lushai Hills, having pressed the former possessors, the Thādos, before them into Cachar. In 1849 they made a raid on a Thādo village in that district, and for the first time came into contact with us and found their northward progress finally stopped. Our subsequent relations with them are a matter of history. Their name is commonly spelt 'Lushai,' but the proper mode, which is employed when speaking of their language, is 'Lushēi.' They usually call themselves 'Dulien' and their language 'Dulien Tong.' The latter has several dialects of which the best known is Ngentē, spoken by a non-Lushai tribe in parts of the South Lushai Hills, in the villages round Demagiri, and in some of the Western Howlong villages. Another is Fannai, spoken, also by a non-Lushai tribe, between the eastern border of the South Lushai Hills and the Koladyne. Standard Lushēi is comparatively well known. Several grammars have been written of it, the most important being that of the pioneer missionaries, Messrs. Lorrain and Savidge, which is accompanied by a very full dictionary. Banjōgi and Pānkhū are two unimportant languages spoken in the Chittagong Hill Tracts. Lushēi is the only one of these three languages for which fairly accurate figures are available.

The languages classed as Southern Chin do not, save in two instances, fall within the scope of the Linguistic Survey of India. The two exceptions are Khyang or Shō and

Southern Chin Sub-Group.		Survey. Census of 1921.	
Chinmè
Welaung
Chinbōk
Yindu	105
Chinbōn	683
Taungtha	6,253
Khyang	95,599	107	
Khami	14,626	27,346	
Anu	712	
M'bang	
Total	110,225	35,206	

Khami, Khweymi, or Kumi. The language of the Khyangs or Khyengs (the word is merely the Arakan pronunciation of the word 'Chin') hardly concern us, as their main habitation is the country on both sides of the Arakan Yoma, in Burma, but about a hundred of them are also found in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, and thus fall within the present Survey. The Survey figures (95,599) given

on the margin are those of the Burma Census of 1891, but at that time all the languages of the Sub-Group except Khami were included under the general name of 'Khyang.'

Khyang. Their language has received some attention, and we have grammars and vocabularies by Major Fryer and Mr. Houghton, besides word-lists by other writers. They are partially civilized and are hence sometimes known as 'Tame Chins.' They call themselves 'Shö.'

Khami. The Khamis, or as the Burmese nickname them 'Khweymis,' 'Dogs' tails', are found in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, and along the River Koladyne in Arakan. They used to live in the Chin Hills, and came to their present seats only in the middle of the nineteenth century. We have several vocabularies of their language, and a short grammar published in 1866 by the Rev. L. Stilson. This language also properly belongs to Burma, and its inclusion in the Linguistic Survey of India is merely due to the presence of some of the speakers in the Chittagong Hill Tracts. All the other languages of this sub-group are confined to Burma, and will form subjects of the investigations of the Linguistic Survey of that Province. For the sake of provisional completeness I have given in the list in the above marginal note, the names which I have come across, but I cannot assert either that it is complete or even that the names given are correct. It is not as yet even certain

Chinmè. that all the languages named are Tibeto-Burman. The Chinmès, who were formerly described as inhabiting the sources of the eastern Mōn, and as a connecting link between the Lais and the

Welaung. Chinbōks, have been lost sight of since 1901. A similar fate has befallen the Welaung Chins, who were formerly described as inhabiting the villages at the head-waters of the Myittha River, and as being bounded on the north by the Lais and on the south by the Chinbōks. These last named live in the hills from the

Chinbōk. Maw River down to the Sawchaung. They are bounded on the north by the Lais and the Welaungs, on the east by the Burmans, on the west by the tribes of the Arakan Yoma, and on the south by the Yindu Chins. The Yindus are

Yindu. found in the valleys of the Salinchaung and the northern end of the Mōn Valley. The Chinbōns inhabit the southern end of the Mōnchaung and stretch across the Arakan Yoma into the valley of the Pichaung. All these localities, unless otherwise stated are in, or

Chinbōn. near, the Pakōkku District of Burma. In the same District are found the Taungthas. Anu is spoken in northern Arakan, and M'hang in Akyab. The last named is also reported from Kyaukpyu.

Taungtha, Anu, M'hang. This is not the place in which to explain the main points of differentiation which characterize the Kuki-Chin languages. The necessary particulars will be found in Volume III, Part iii. But I may draw attention to one peculiarity which admirably illustrates the nature of the Tibeto-Burman construction. It is a well-known fact that none of these languages has developed a proper verb. The words which perform the functions of our verbs are, in reality, verbal nouns denoting a state or an action. They are therefore dealt with as nouns, and forms corresponding to our tenses are formed by adding postpositions, or are compounds the last part of which has the meaning of 'finishing,' 'beginning,' etc. This is peculiarly evident in the Chin languages. In most

General characteristics of the Kuki-Chin languages.

of them the verbs are never conceived in the abstract, but are always put into relationship with some other noun which, with us, would be the subject. This is effected in exactly the same way as with ordinary nouns, *viz.*, by prefixing the possessive pronouns, so that the expression 'my going' is used instead of 'I go.' Thus, in Lushēi, when we want to say 'I am', we say *kā nē*, literally 'my being'; and when we want to say 'thou art,' we say *i nē*, 'thy being.'

The Sak, or Lūi, Group cannot be considered as definitely established till the Linguistic Survey of Burma is completed.

The Lūis or Lōis are a group of servile tribes found in the Manipur State, and are

Lūi Languages—	SAK (LŪI) GROUP.	
	Survey.	Census of 1921.
<i>Andro and Sengmai</i>
<i>Chairel</i>
Kadu	18,594
Daingnet	4,915
Ganan	1,022
Sak or Thet	614
Total	25,145

were reported for the Linguistic Survey, and subsequent accounts have shown that they are now nearly extinct. Already in McCulloch's day (1859) they were in course of

Andro, Sengmai, Chairel.

being superseded by the dominant Meithei. Andro and Sengmai are practically the same language, and they are closely connected with the Kadu mentioned below. Chairel is very different from these three, and I have been unable as yet satisfactorily to affiliate it to any other forms of Tibeto-Burman speech, although it manifestly belongs to that sub-family. Pending further information from the Burma side, I have temporarily put it together with the two other Lūi languages, although I cannot suggest any relationship between it and them.

Kadu is spoken in the neighbouring Burma districts of Myitkyina, Katha, and Upper Chindwin, and Ganan in the last two of these. Ganan is merely a variant of Kadu, and its speakers as well as those of Kadu call themselves 'A-Sak.' This leads us on to Sak or Thet, spoken far away, in the Akyab District, which is allied to Kadu. Mr. Taylor² tells us that, according to Burmese history, in early days the

Saks inhabited the upper part of the Irrawaddy Valley. Some of these are supposed to have travelled from their original settlement in North Burma in a south-westerly direction into Arakan. He suggests that some of them may have passed on into Manipur and become the ancestors of the Andro and Sengmai tribes. Another possible explanation is, however, that the original Kadu-Saks, while still in north Burma, spread also into Manipur, and that the Andro and Sengmai were left behind there, like the Kadus of Myitkyina and the neighbourhood, when the Saks migrated to the South-West. The facts that they were servile tribes, and that they were expropriated by the Meitheis, show that they must have been very early settlers there, and that they were found there by the Meitheis when they conquered the country.

¹ See T. C. Hodson, *The Meitheis*, p. 65.

² The 'Kadus', in Vol. XII, Part i (1922) of the *Journal of the Burma Research Society*. It may be added that 'Sak' is the old written form, while 'Thet' is the modern colloquial form of the name.

Finally, Daingnet is the language, much corrupted by the Indo-Aryan Bengali, of the descendants of Sak prisoners of war from the Valley of the Lower Chindwin, who were captured by King Mindi of Arakan at the close of the thirteenth century and made to settle in the Akyab District¹.

The remaining languages of the Tibeto-Burman Sub-Family belong to Burma, and their consideration must be left to the Burmese Linguistic Survey. Here, for the sake of completeness I shall give little more than a catalogue as accurate as our present knowledge permits.

Burma Group.

Under the head of the Burma Group I here include not only Burmese and the languages directly allied to it, but also a number of other languages which have been hitherto classed as hybrids or corrupt mixtures of Burmese with Kachin or other forms of speech. Another suggestion has been made that, like the Lûis, the tribes speaking them may be remnants, or predecessors, left by the Burmese in their migration from the north into Burma, or possibly that they were tribes of the same stock as the Burmese, who left the original seat after them. Pending the decision of the Burma Linguistic Survey I have therefore provisionally prefixed them to the Burma Sub-Group.

BURMA GROUP.		Census of 1921.
Szi		5,663
Lashi		16,570
Maru		20,577
Maingtha		339
Phun		243
Mru		22,907
Burmese		8,423,256
Arakanese		304,549
Taungyo		22,532
Danu		72,955
Intha		55,007
Tavoyan		131,748
Chaungtha		9,052
Yanbye		250,018
Others		179
Total		9,335,595

Maingtha.

Phun.

lives in the first defile of the Irrawaddy, extending a few miles north and south of the dividing line between the Bhamo and Myitkyina districts. It presents the

of mixed origin spread along the Burmese frontier, north, east, and south-east of Bhamo. They belong to the great Lepai Kachin tribe, but are looked upon by some authorities as half-breeds. Maru, spoken in Myitkyina and Bhamo, has much the same character as Szi and Lashi. We have a grammar and vocabulary of it by Mr. Clerk. The speakers are popularly classed as Kachins, but they themselves, like the Szi and the Lashi, deny the fact, and their denial is borne out by ethnographical research and by their language. Another language which presents a character similar to these three is Maingtha. Its speakers call themselves 'Nga-chang', and the Shans call them 'Möng-s'a', which latter word has been corrupted into "Maingtha" by the Burmese. It is spoken in the Northern Shan States and also in Yün-nan and North-West China. The Phun (or as the word is spelt in Burma, Hpun) speakers are dying out, and there are now but few. The tribe

¹ Burma Census Report for 1921, Appendix B, §10.

appearance of a very archaic Burmese, but many of its words closely resemble those of the preceding four. Mrū or Mrō is a puzzling language in many respects. In the main it follows the phonetic system of Burmese, and yet it sometimes differs from it in material points, presenting forms which are paralleled not only (and most frequently) by those which we meet in Kuki-Chin, but even by the construction of Bodo and Nāgā forms of speech. It is mainly spoken in North Arakan and Akyab, but a few speakers are also found in the Chittagong Hill Tracts.

Burmese.

Turning now to Burmese proper, I confine myself to enumerating those forms of speech which appear in previous Census Reports. They are there shown each as an independent language, but it is probable that the Burma Linguistic Survey will show that this is not the case, but that most, or all, of them are simply dialects of Burmese. Standard Burmese is the language spoken all over the Province by educated natives of the country. It is the language of literature and of the schools, and is the official language of Government. The written

Arakanese.

language is the same everywhere, but the local language varies greatly. Arakanese or Rakhaing is the only form of Burmese that is spoken in the area examined by this Survey, as it appears under the name of Maghī in Bakarganj, Chittagong, and the Chittagong Hill Tracts. In these tracts the speakers are really an overflow from Burma, and the true home of the dialect is in Akyab, Sandoway, and Bassein. The Arakanese branched off from the main Burmese stock at an early date, and have had relatively little intercourse with them since that period, communication having been barred by an intermediate mountainous tract of country. Their language has therefore developed upon lines of its own, and in many respects it differs widely from the standard form of speech. It is well known that the orthodox pronunciation of the latter is extremely dissimilar from that indicated by the written language. In other words, the development of the spoken language has proceeded more rapidly than that of the written one, and the latter represents the older form. One of the proofs of this is that the pronunciation of Arakanese frequently agrees with that of Burmese as written, and not as it is spoken. Taungyo is spoken in Meiktila

Taungyo.Danu.Intha.Tavoyan.

and the Southern Shan States, and Danu in the Shan States and neighbouring districts. The Taungyo people call themselves Tāru. Intha also is spoken in the Southern Shan States, and Tavoyan, or Dawé, in Tavoy. These two are closely connected, and Mr. Taylor informs me that there is good evidence that the Inthas left Tavoy for their present habitat on the Inle lake some 700 years ago. The two languages

Chaungtha.Yanbye.

were then the same. Chaungtha is spoken in Akyab and the Arakan Hill Tracts, and Yanbye in Kyaukpyu and Akyab.

The languages of the Lolo-Mos'ō Group belong to Yün-nan and North-Western China, but some of the speakers have overflowed into the Shan States, and will thus attract the attention of the

Lolo-Mos'ō Group.

Linguistic Survey of Burma. With the present Survey they have no connexion, beyond the fact that they belong to the Tibeto-Burman Sub-Family, and show a certain amount of relationship with Kachin. The Group is also interesting for its apparent connexion with Si-hia, a language once spoken in the Tangut country, close to the border of the Great Desert, and now dead for many centuries. Specimens of it have been

Lolo-Mos'o Group.		Census of 1921.
Lolo	.	35,085
<i>A-hi</i>
<i>A-ka</i>	.	34,265
<i>A-kö</i>	.	51
<i>Unspecified</i>	.	769
Lisu	.	13,152
<i>Lis'aw</i>
<i>Unspecified</i>	.	13,152
Mo-s'o	.	26,418
<i>Lahu</i>
<i>Kwi</i>	.	3,676
<i>Unspecified</i>	.	22,742
Others	.	1,031
Total		75,686

preserved by Chinese writers, and these have been studied and described by Dr. Laufer in the pages of 'T'oung-pao.' The Lolo languages themselves have received much study at the hands of French missionaries, and we know more about them than we do about any other non-literary Tibeto-Burman forms of speech. They will doubtless receive further study in the Burmese Linguistic Survey. Here it must suffice to record the names of the principal languages of the group, referring the reader for further particulars to the Comparative

Vocabulary in Part II of this Volume. The chief languages are Lolo, Lisu, and Mo-s'o.

Lolo.
A-hi, A-ka.
A-kö.
Lisu.
Lis'aw.
Mo-s'o.

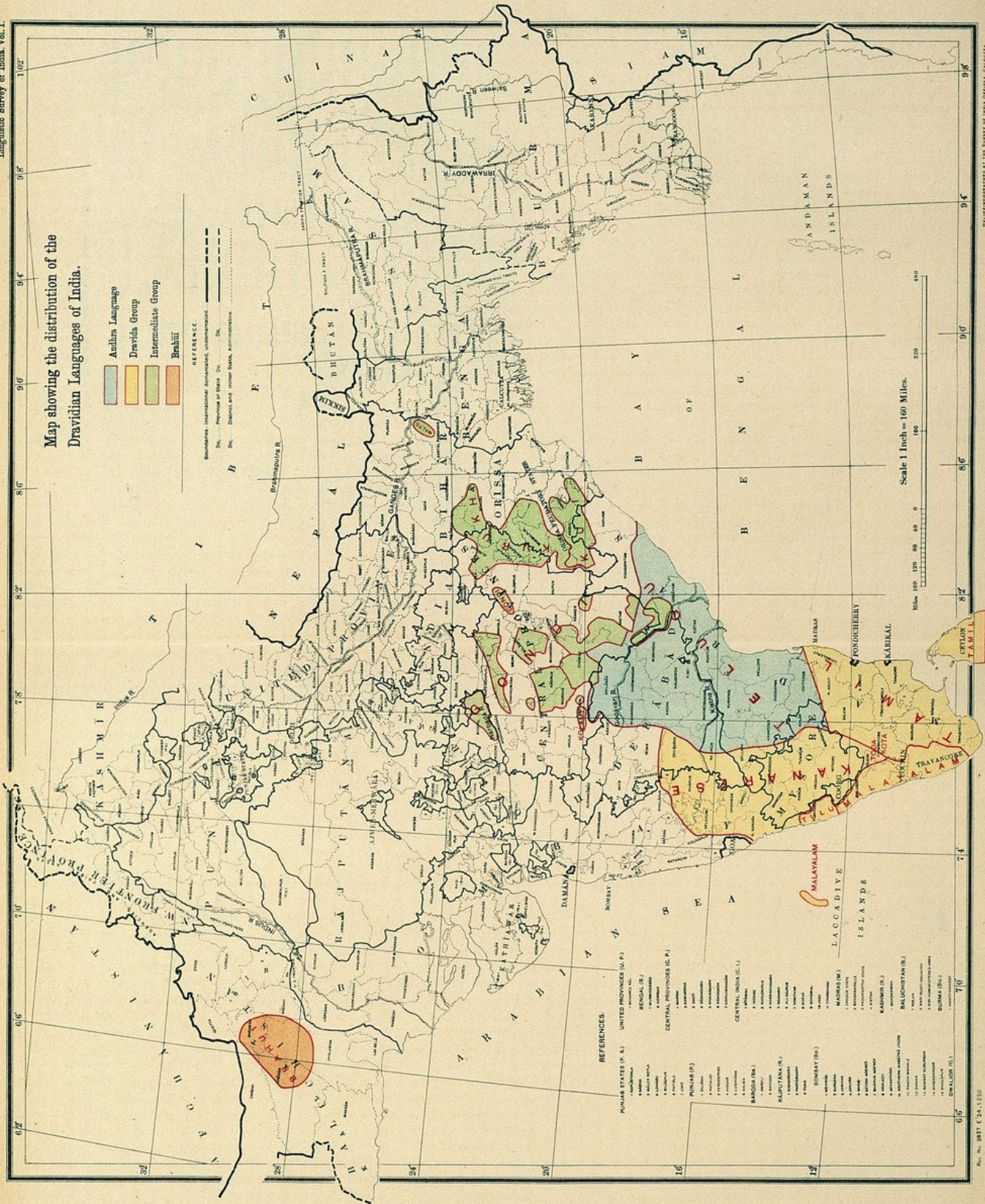
Lolo is itself really a sub-group of languages, the principal of which are A-hi, A-ka (the Akha of the Upper Burma Gazetteer), and A-kö. A-ka is also sometimes called Kaw. The Lisu language of Yün-nan is little known, but lists of words belonging to its dialect Lis'aw have been obtained from the Shan States, and a Lisu grammar has lately been brought out by M. J. O. Fraser. The proper home of Mo-s'o (the Mosso or Musu of the Gazetteer of Upper Burma) is the valley of the Mekhong immediately to the east of Upper Burma and the valley of the Yang-tse round Li-kiang. Lahu and Kwi are said to be dialects of Mo-s'o.

¹ Second Series, Vol. XVII, No. 1, March, 1916.

Map showing the distribution of the Dravidian Languages of India.

- Andhra Language
- Dravidic Group
- Intermediate Group
- Malai

REFERENCE
 Boundaries: International, Provincial, District
 Shaded: Percentage of Dravidic
 Dotted: District and minor State Administration



REFERENCES

PUNJAB STATES (P. S.)	UNITED PROVINCES (U. P.)
BENGAL (B.)	MADHYA PRADESH (M. P.)
GUJARAT (G.)	ANDHRA PRADESH (A. P.)
RAJASTHAN (R.)	TAMIL NADU (T. N.)
KARNATAKA (K.)	KERALA (K.)
MALAYALAM (M.)	

CHAPTER VII.—THE DRAVIDIAN FAMILY.

The Dravidian race is spread widely over India, but all the members of it do not speak Dravidian languages. In the north many of them have become Aryanized, and have adopted the Aryan languages of their conquerors while they have retained their ethnic characteristics. Besides these, many millions of people inhabiting central and southern India possessing the physical type classed by ethnologists as 'Dravidian' are almost the only speakers of two other important families of speech, the Muṇḍā and the Dravidian proper. Owing to the fact that these languages are nearly all spoken by persons possessing the same physical type, many scholars have suggested a connexion between the two families of speech, but a detailed inquiry carried out by the Linguistic Survey shows that there is no foundation for such a theory. Whether we consider the phonetic systems, the methods of inflexion, or the vocabularies, the Dravidian have no connexion with the Muṇḍā languages. They differ in their sounds, in their modes of indicating gender, in their declensions of nouns, in their method of indicating the relationship of a verb to its objects, in their numeral systems, in their principles of conjugation, in their methods of indicating the negative, and in their vocabularies. The few points in which they agree are common to many languages scattered all over the world.

Leaving, therefore, the fact of the so-called Dravidian *race* speaking two different families of languages to be discussed by ethnologists, we proceed to consider those forms of speech which are called 'Dravidian' by philologists.

We do not know how long the speakers of these languages have been settled in India. It seems to be certain that they had been long in the country at the time of the earliest Aryan immigrations, but we do not know whether they are to be considered as autochthones or as having, in their turn, come into India from some other country. We shall see that the fact that one tribe, not of the 'Dravidian' physical type, but speaking a language certainly belonging to the Dravidian linguistic family, the Brāhūis, is found in the extreme north-west of India has been adduced by Bishop Caldwell and others as indicating that the speakers of proto-Dravidian, like the Aryans, must have entered India from the north-west; but this argument is not convincing. It puts the speakers as forming the rearguard of an invasion from the north-west, but the facts are equally consistent with an assumption that they form the survivors of the vanguard of a national movement from the east or from the south of India. Moreover, in this case, physical type would be a most unsafe guide. For some centuries the Brāhūis have lived amidst an Eranian population, with which they have freely intermarried, while they have been separated by many hundred miles from the nearest speakers of other Dravidian languages. Even if it were conclusively proved that there was such a type as that called 'Dravidian' by ethnologists, and that the original Brāhūis possessed that type, it would be surprising if, under the circumstances in which they live, they had retained it.

From the Linguistic side Bishop Caldwell adduced a great mass of materials in his attempt to show that the Dravidian languages also point to the countries beyond north-western India and their 'Scythian' inhabitants as being their original nidus, and his

theory that they were related to Turkish, Finnish, and Hungarian has since been repeated over and over again in popular works, but has failed to gain the acceptance of modern scholars.

I have already alluded to the attempts made to prove a connexion with the Mundā languages, and have explained how this cannot be considered to exist. Finally allusion may be made to comparisons with the Australian languages, and to suggestions of a possible connexion by land between India and Australia in the times when the prehistoric Lemurian Continent is believed to have existed. That certain resemblances in language have been found cannot be denied, but, as yet, we cannot quote anything as proving that a linguistic connexion is probable. All that we can say with our present knowledge is that it is not impossible. Up to a few years ago the knowledge of the Australian languages possessed by European scholars was very scanty. In 1919 Pater W. Schmidt¹ succeeded in reducing order out of chaos, and in classifying the numerous cognate tongues spoken in that great island-continent. The next stage in the investigation will be to carry on the inquiry into New Guinea, and thence into India. This inquiry was actually begun under Pater Schmidt's auspices² but was interrupted during the War, and up to the date of writing nothing has appeared on the subject. We can only, for the present, wait and hope that in the near future sufficient materials will be forthcoming to settle the question once for all.

The Dravidian languages at the present day have their chief home in the south of the Indian peninsula, as contrasted with the Aryan languages of the north. The northern limit of this southern block of Dravidian languages may roughly be taken as the north-east corner of the district of Chanda in the Central Provinces. Thence, towards the Arabian Sea, the boundary runs south-west to Kolhapur, whence it follows the line of the Western Ghats to about a hundred miles below Goa, where it joins the sea. The boundary eastwards from Chanda is more irregular, the hill country being mainly Dravidian with here and there a Mundā colony, and the plains Aryan. Kandh, which is found most to the north-east, is almost entirely surrounded by Aryan-speaking Oriyās. Besides this solid block of Dravidian-speaking country, there are islands of languages belonging to the family far to the north in the Central Provinces and Chota Nagpur, even up to the bank of the Ganges at Rajmahal. Most of these are rapidly falling under Aryan influences. Many of the speakers are adopting the Aryan caste system and with it broken forms of Aryan language, so that there are in this tract numbers of Dravidian tribes to whose identification philology can offer no assistance. Finally, in far off Baluchistan, there is Brāhūi, concerning which, as already stated, it is uncertain whether it is the advance guard or the rearguard of a Dravidian migration.

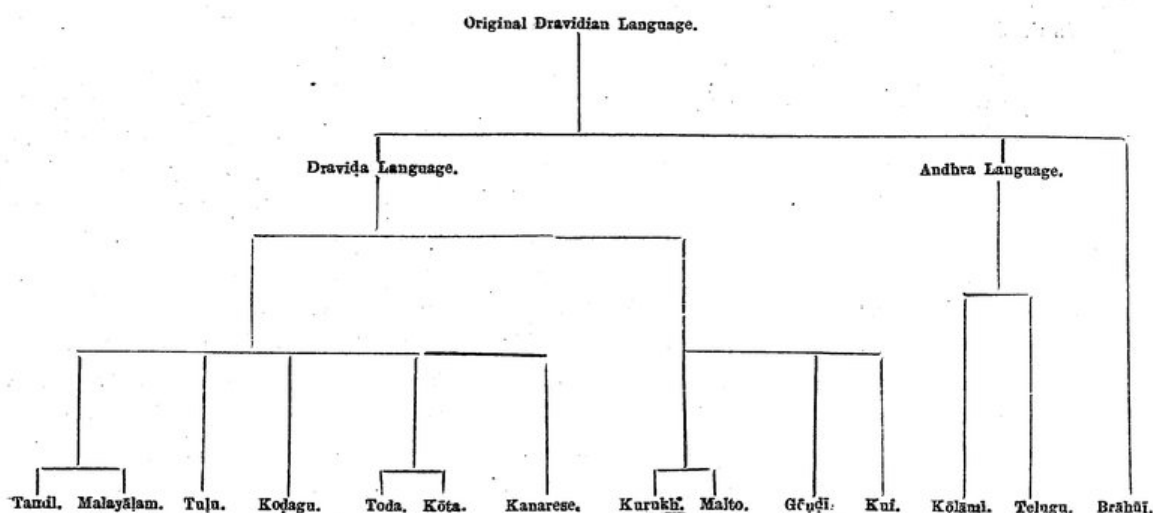
If Burnell was correct in his quotation³, a Sanskrit writer of the 7th century who claimed familiarity with the languages of southern India divided them into two groups, that of the Andhra and that

¹ *Die Gliederung der Australischen Sprachen.* Vienna, 1919.

² *Id.* p. 22.

³ The reference is to an article by Burnell on p. 310 of the first volume of the 'Indian Antiquary,' and the Sanskrit writer was Kumārila Bhaṭṭa. The correct reading of the Sanskrit passage quoted is, however, doubtful. See P. T. Srinivas Iyengar in the 'Indian Antiquary,' vol. xlii, pp. 200ff.

of the Draviḍa country. The former corresponds to the modern Telugu and the latter to the modern Tamil and its relatives, and the division well corresponds with the present division of the existing vernaculars. The language of Andhra was the parent of Telugu. Kurukh, Malto, Kui, Kōlāmī, and Gōṇḍī are intermediate languages, and, except Brāhūī and a couple of Hybrids, all the rest are descended from the language of Draviḍa. The relationship between the various Dravidian languages is therefore illustrated in the following table:—



On this basis we can divide the Dravidian languages into four groups, to which may be added a pair of semi-Dravidian Hybrids, making five in all. The number of people speaking each, according to the Survey and according to the Census of 1921, is shown on the margin. As this Survey did not extend to southern India, most of the great Dravidian languages remained outside the sphere of its operations. But as some reference to them is necessary in order to understand their connexion with Dravidian languages spoken in the area subject to the Survey, and as there is no immediate prospect of a Linguistic Survey being undertaken in the Madras Presidency, as has been begun in Burma, in the following pages I shall endeavour to describe all the languages of the family in some detail.

The Dravidian languages are polysyllabic and agglutinative, but do not possess anything like the wonderful luxuriance of agglutinative suffixes which we have noticed as distinguishing the Muṇḍā family. They represent, in fact, a later stage of development, for, although still agglutinative, they exhibit the suffixes in a state in which they are beginning to be modified by euphonic considerations, dropping

	Survey. Census of 1921.	
Draviḍa Group . . .	30,940,550	37,285,594
Intermediate Group . . .	2,180,858	3,056,598
Andhra Language (Telugu) . . .	19,783,901	23,601,492
North-western Language (Brāhūī).	165,500	184,368
Semi-Dravidian Hybrids . . .	2,452	...
TOTAL . . .	53,073,261	64,128,052

letters in one place and changing vowels in another. The suffixes, though thus sometimes losing their original form, are nevertheless still independent and separable from the stem word, which itself remains unchanged. The following general account of the main characteristics of Dravidian forms of speech is taken, with one or two verbal alterations, from the Manual of Administration of the Madras Presidency :—

In the Dravidian languages all nouns denoting inanimate substances and irrational beings are of the neuter gender. The distinction of male and female appears only in the pronouns of the third person, in adjectives formed by suffixing the pronominal terminations, and in the third person of the verb. In all other cases the distinction of gender is marked by separate words signifying 'male' and 'female.' Dravidian nouns are inflected, not by means of case terminations, but by means of suffixed postpositions and separable particles. Dravidian neuter nouns are rarely pluralized. The Dravidian dative (*ku*, *ki* or *ge*) bears no analogy to any case termination found in Sanskrit or other Indo-European languages, the resemblance to the Hindi *kō* being accidental. Dravidian languages use postpositions instead of prepositions. In Sanskrit adjectives are declined like substantives, while in Dravidian adjectives are incapable of declension. It is characteristic of Dravidian languages in contradistinction to Indo-European, that, wherever practicable, they use as adjectives the relative participles of verbs in preference to nouns of quality, or adjectives properly so called. A peculiarity of the Dravidian dialects (shared however with Munḍā) is the existence of two pronouns of the first person plural, one inclusive of the person addressed, and the other exclusive. The Dravidian languages have no passive voice, this being expressed by verbs signifying 'to suffer,' etc. The Dravidian languages, unlike the Indo-European, prefer the use of continuative participles to conjugation. The Dravidian verbal system possesses a negative as well as an affirmative voice. It is a marked peculiarity of the Dravidian languages that they make use of relative participial nouns instead of phrases introduced by relative pronouns. These participles are formed from the various participles of the verb by the addition of a formative suffix. Thus, 'the person who came' is in Tamil literally 'the who-came.'

The only language of the Dravid group that (excepting a few stray dialects) fell

DRAVIDA GROUP.		
	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Tamil	15,272,856	18,779,577
Malayālam	5,425,979	7,497,638
Kanarese	9,710,832	10,374,204
Koḍagu	37,218	39,995
Tulu	491,728	592,325
Toda	736	663
Kōta	1,201	1,192
TOTAL	30,940,550	37,285,594

a brief account of each of the languages of the group. The most cultivated and

within the area over which the Survey operations extended was Kanarese, and this because a large number of its speakers are found within the Bombay Presidency. But even for this language twice as many are found in Madras, the Nizam's Dominions, Mysore, and Coorg. For the reasons already given, I nevertheless propose to give

the best known of all the Dravidian forms of speech is Tamil. It covers the whole of southern India up to Mysore and the Ghats on the west, and reaches northwards as far as the town of Madras and beyond. It is also spoken as a vernacular in the northern part of the island of Ceylon, while most of the emigrants from the Peninsula to British Burma and the Straits Settlements, the so-called Klings or Kalingas, have Tamil for their native language; so also have a large proportion of the emigrant coolies who are found in Mauritius and in other British colonies. In India itself, Tamil speakers, principally domestic servants, are found in every large town and cantonment. The Madras servant is usually without religious prejudices or scruples as to food, headgear, or ceremonial, so that he can accommodate himself to all circumstances, in which respect he is unlike the northern Indian domestic. Tamil, which is sometimes called Malabar, and also, by Deccan Musalmāns and in the west of India, Arava, is a fairly homogeneous language. Only a few petty

TAMIL DIALECTS.

	Survey.
Standard and Unspecified	15,207,256
Korava or Yerukala	55,116
Irula	1,614
Kasuva	316
Kaikāḍi	8,289
Burganḍi	265
TOTAL	15,272,856

dialects mentioned on the margin have been reported. Irula and Kasuva are the dialects of small tribes spoken in the Nilgiris, and they have not been touched by the Survey. In classifying them as forms of Tamil I am merely following previous authorities, and they themselves are not certain as to the correct affiliation of Kasuva. Korava, Kaikāḍi, and Burganḍi are spoken by vagrant tribes wandering over southern India, and as some of them were found in Bombay and the Central Provinces, they fell into the Survey's net, and have been analysed and described in Volume IV. There are also many provincial forms of the language, but of these the Survey is necessarily ignorant. Standard Tamil itself has two forms, the Shen (*i.e.* perfect) and the Koḍun or Codoon (*i.e.* rude). The first is the literary language used for poetry, and has many artificial features. Codoon Tamil is the style used for the purposes of ordinary life.

Ancient Tamil has an alphabet of its own, the Vatteluttu, *i.e.* 'round writing,' while the modern language employs one which is also in its present form very distinctive, and which can be traced up to the ancient Brahmi character used by Asōka, through the old Grantha alphabet used in southern India for writing Sanskrit. The Vatteluttu is also of North Indian origin. The modern Tamil character is an adaptation of the Grantha letters which corresponded to the letters existing in the old, incomplete, Vatteluttu alphabet, from which also a few characters have been retained, the Grantha not possessing the equivalents. Like the Vatteluttu, it is singularly imperfect considering the copiousness of the modern vocabulary which it has to record.

Tamil is the oldest, richest, and most highly organized of the Dravidian languages; plentiful in vocabulary, and cultivated from a remote period. It has a great literature of high merit. This is not the place in which to give an account of Tamil literature, but mention may be made of one or two of the more famous works that adorn it. Its beginning was due to the labours of the Jains, whose activities as authors in this language extended from the eighth or ninth to the thirteenth century. The *Kural* of Tiruvalluvar, which teaches the Sāṅkhya

Tamil.

Literature.

philosophy in 1330 poetical aphorisms on virtue, wealth, and pleasure, is universally considered as one of its brightest gems. The author is said to have been a Pariah, and according to Bishop Caldwell, he cannot be placed later than the 10th century A.D. Another great ethical poem, the Jain *Nālaḍiyār*, is perhaps still older. A woman writer called Auveiyār, or 'the Venerable Matron,' and the reputed sister of Tiruvalluvar, but probably of later date, is said to have been the authoress of the *Attisūdi* and the *Konreivēyndan*, two shorter works, which are still read in Tamil schools. We may further mention the *Chintāmaṇi*, a romantic epic of great beauty, by an unknown Jain poet, the *Rāmāyaṇa* of Kamban,—an epic said to rival the *Chintāmaṇi* in poetic charm,—and the classical Tamil grammar, the *Nannūl*, of Pavaṇanti. Special reference must also be made to the anti-Brahmanical Tamil literature of the *Śittar* (i.e. *Siddhas* or sages). The *Śittar* were a Tamil sect, who, while retaining Śiva as the name of the one God, rejected everything in Śiva-worship inconsistent with pure theism. They were quietists in religion and alchemists in science. Their mystical poems, especially the *Śiva-vākyaṃ*, are said to possess singular beauty, and some scholars have detected in them traces of Christian influence.

Modern Tamil literature may be taken as commencing in the eighteenth century. The most important writers are Tāyumānavan, the author of 1453 pantheistic stanzas which have a high reputation, and the Italian Jesuit Beschi (d. 1742). Beschi's Tamil style is considered irreproachable. His principal work in that language is the *Tēmbāvaṇi*, or 'Unfading Garland.' It is a mixture of old Tamil legends with Italian reminiscences, of which the leading example is an episode from Tasso's *Gerusalemme Liberata*, in which St. Joseph is made the hero.

Closely connected with Tamil is Malayālam, the language of the Malabar coast. Its name is derived from *mala*, the local word for 'mountain,' with a termination meaning 'possessing,' the whole word thus meaning literally 'mountain region,' and strictly applicable rather to the country in which it is spoken than to the language itself. It is a modern offshoot from Tamil, dating from, say, the ninth century. In the seventeenth century it became subject to Brahmanical influence, received a large infusion of Sanskrit words, and adopted the Grantha character in supersession of the Vatteluttu for its alphabet. From the thirteenth century the personal terminations of the verbs, till then a feature of Malayālam, as of the other Dravidian languages, began to be dropped from the spoken language, and by the end of the fifteenth century they had wholly gone out of use except by the inhabitants of the Laccadives and by the Moplahs of South Kanara, in whose speech remains of them are still found. The Moplahs, who as Musalmāns had religious objections to reading Hindū mythological poems, have also resisted the Brahmanical influence on the language, which with them is much less Sanskritized than among the Hindūs, and, where they have not adopted the Arabic character, they retain the old Vatteluttu.

MALAYĀLAM.

	Survey.
Standard	5,423,392
Yerava	2,587
TOTAL	5,425,979

Malayālam has a fairly large literature, principally, as explained above, Brahmanical, and including one historical work of some importance, the *Kēraḷōtpatti*. It has one dialect, the Yerava, spoken in Coorg.

The true centre of the Kanarese-speaking people is Mysore. The historic "Carnatic" was for the most part in the Deccan plateau above the Ghāts. The language is also spoken in the south-

Kanarese.

KANARESE SPOKEN IN	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Bombay Presidency . . .	3,019,739	2,403,448
Madras Presidency . . .	1,461,477	1,533,344
Nizam's Dominions . . .	1,451,046	1,536,928
Mysore	3,655,976	4,257,098
Coorg	76,115	73,168
Elsewhere	1,810	570,218
TOTAL	9,666,163	10,374,204

east corner of the Bombay Presidency, and occupies a strip of the coast between Tulu and Marāṭhī. Above the Ghāts, it stretches eastwards into the Nizam's Dominions, and northwards to beyond the Kistna. The character used for writing and printing Kanarese is closely connected with that employed for Telugu, but the language itself possesses greater affinity to Tamil.

The character, like that of Tamil, is derived from the Brahmi alphabet of Asōka, but by an altogether different line of descent, as its pedigree comes down through the Vengi and Chālukya scripts of the seventh century A.D. The ancient Kanarese alphabet,

Written character.

known as the Hala-kannada, which was the same as that in contemporary use for Telugu, dates from the thirteenth century, but since then there has arisen a marked divergence between the two characters, which has increased since the introduction of printing in the course of the nineteenth century. Neither of these characters has been limited by the number of letters in the old Vatteluttu alphabet, and hence they are as full and complete as that of Malayālam or as any of the alphabets used for writing Sanskrit. The curved form of the letters is a marked feature of both, and this is due to the custom of writing with a stilus on palm-leaves, which a series of straight lines would inevitably have split along the grain. In Hala-kannada is preserved an ancient form of the language, analogous to that of literary Tamil, and nearly as artificial. Up to the sixteenth century Kanarese was free from any admixture of foreign words, but since then the vocabulary has been extensively mixed with Sanskrit. During the supremacy of Haidar Ali and Tippu Sultan, Urdū words were largely imported into it from Mysore, and it has also borrowed from Marāṭhī on the north-west, and from Telugu on its north-east.

Kanarese is interesting from the fact that sentences in that language have been discovered by Professor Hultzsch in a Greek play preserved in an Egyptian papyrus of the second century A.D. Its

Kanarese literature.

literature proper originated, like Tamil literature, in the labours of the Jains. It is of considerable extent, and has existed for at least a thousand years. Nearly all the works which have been described seem to be either translations or imitations of Sanskrit works. Besides treatises on poetics, rhetoric, and grammar, it includes sectarian works of Jains, Lingāyats, Śaivas, and Vaishnavas. Those of the Lingāyats appear to possess most originality. Their list includes several episodes of a *Basava Purāṇa*, in glorification of a certain Basava who is said to have been an incarnation of Śiva's bull Nandī. There is also an admired *Śataka* of Sōmēśvara. Modern Kanarese rejoices in a large number of particularly racy folk-ballads, some of which have been translated into English by Mr. Fleet. One of the most amusing echoes the cry of the long-suffering income-tax payer, and tells with considerable humour how the 'virtuous' merchants carefully understate their incomes. Dialects of Kanarese are Baḍaga, Kurumba, and Gōlari.

KANARESE.		Survey.
Standard	.	9,666,163
Badaga	.	30,656
Kurumba	.	10,399
Gölari	.	3,614
TOTAL	.	9,710,832

with an admixture of Tamil. The Gölars or Gölars are a tribe of nomadic herdsmen and the Höliyās are a caste of leather-workers and musicians, both hailing from the Central Provinces. They both speak the same dialect of Kanarese, which is called indifferently Gölari or Höliya. Other Gölars, who speak a form of Telugu, will be referred to later on.

Koḍagu or Coorgi is the main language of Coorg, and is described as standing midway between old Kanarese and Tuḷu. Some authorities look upon it as a dialect of Kanarese.

Tuḷu, immediately to the south-west of Kanarese, is confined to a small area in or near the district of South Canara in Madras. The Chandragiri and Kalyānapūrī rivers in that district are regarded as its ancient

	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Koḍagu	37,218	39,995
Tuḷu	491,728	592,325

boundaries and it does not appear ever to have extended much beyond them. It is a cultivated language, but has no literature. It uses the Kanarese character. Bishop Caldwell describes it as one of the most highly developed of the Dravidian tongues. It differs more from its neighbour Malayālam than Malayālam does from Tamil, and more nearly approximates to Koḍagu. It is said to have two dialects, Koraga and Bellara.

The remaining languages of the Draviḍa group are Toda and Kōta, both spoken by wild tribes in the Nilgiri Hills. By some they are considered to be dialects of Kanarese, but Bishop Caldwell maintains that they are distinct languages. Toda has received a good deal of attention, mainly because its speakers are within easy reach of Ootacamund. The Kōtas are another tribe lower in position and occupation than the Todas. Todas and Kōtas are said to understand each others' languages. The number of speakers of each is very small, and the tongues have survived only through the secluded positions of the tribes.

The languages of the Intermediate Group are all spoken further north than those of the Draviḍa Group. Most of them are spoken in the Central Provinces and Berar, but a few in Orissa and Chota Nagpur. One, Malto, is found even so far north as Rajmahal on the bank of the Ganges. They are all spoken by more or less uncivilized hill tribes. By far the most important of them is Gōṇḍī, spoken mainly in the Central Provinces, but overflowing into Orissa, north-eastern Madras, the Nizam's Territories, Berar, and the neighbouring

INTERMEDIATE GROUP.		Survey.	Census of 1921.
Gōṇḍī	.	1,322,190	1,616,911
Kōlāmī	.	23,295	23,939
Kandhī	.	318,592	483,668
Kurukh	.	503,980	865,722
Malhar	.		344
Malto	.	12,801	65,964
TOTAL	.	2,180,858	3,056,598

Gōṇḍī.

tracts of Central India. The Linguistic Survey shows that it has a common ancestor with Tamil and Kanarese, and that it has little immediate connexion with its neighbour Telugu. The word 'Gōṇḍī' means 'the language of Gōṇḍs,' but, as many Gōṇḍs have abandoned their proper tongue for that spoken by their Aryan-speaking neighbours, it is often impossible to say from the mere name alone what language is connoted by it. For instance, there are many thousands of Gōṇḍs in Baghelkhand, who have been reported to the Linguistic Survey as speaking Gōṇḍī, but this, on examination, turned out to be a broken form of Baghēlī. Similarly, the Gōṇḍ Ōjhās of Chhind-

Ōjhī.

wara, in the heart of the Gōṇḍ country, speak what is called the Ōjhī dialect, but this is also a jargon based on Baghēlī.

Until, therefore, all the various forms of alleged Gōṇḍī have been systematically examined, great reserve must be used in speaking of the Gōṇḍī language as a whole. The Linguistic Survey has done its best with the materials at its command, and its results may be taken as broadly correct at the present time, but there are no doubt several small, scattered, groups of Gōṇḍs the minutiae of whose speech it has not had an opportunity of examining. That there is such a language as Gōṇḍī proper, and that it is Dravidian, and that it is spoken by at least a million and a quarter people, there is not the slightest doubt. It has received considerable attention in late years, and has been given an excellent grammar, vocabulary, and reading book from the pen of Mr. Chenevix

GONDĪ DIALECTS.		Survey.
Standard and Unspecified	.	1,147,303
Gaṭṭu	.	2,033
Kōi	.	51,127
Mariā	.	104,340
Parjī	.	17,387
TOTAL		1,322,190

Trench. The language is said to have numerous dialects, of which the principal are given on the margin. Gaṭṭu or Gotte, the former being said to be the correct spelling, and Kōi or Kōyā are found in Chanda, Vizagapatam, and Godavari, and Kōi also in the Bastar State and in the Nizam's Territories. They differ little, if

at all, between themselves or from the standard dialect,—indeed, the name Kōi is that by which all Gōṇḍs call themselves. Mārī or Mariā and Parjī are also spoken in Bastar. The names, however, indicate tribal rather than linguistic differences, and, so far as the information available entitles us to give an opinion, none of these names connote any real dialects. The true Gōṇḍī seems to be the same everywhere, with local variations of pronunciation, and the most that can be said is that as we go east and south it is more and more mixed with the neighbouring Telugu. Gōṇḍī has no written character of its own, and no literature, but portions of the Bible have been translated into it, and Mr. Trench, in his reading book, has preserved an interesting collection of traditions and folktales.

The Kōlāms are an aboriginal tribe of east Berar and of the Wardha District of the Central Provinces. They are usually classed as Gōṇḍs, but they differ from them in personal appearance, and both they and the Gōṇḍs repudiate the connexion. Their language differs widely from that of the neighbouring Gōṇḍs. In some points it agrees with Telugu, and in other respects with Kanarese and the connected forms of speech. There are also some interesting points of analogy with the Toda of the Nilgiris, and the Kōlāms must, from a philological point of view, be looked upon as remnants of an old Dravidian tribe that have not been

Kōlām.

involved in the development of the principal Dravidian languages, or of a tribe that has not originally spoken a Dravidian form of speech. There are two other forms of speech,

KŌLĀMĪ DIALECTS.					Survey.
Standard	23,100
Bhili of Basim	?
Naikī	195
TOTAL					23,295

spoken by petty tribes, which are closely allied to Kōlāmī, and which can most conveniently be looked upon as dialects of that language. In the Basim District of Berar there are three or four hundred Bhils. Most of these speak Bhilī, which will be discussed under the head of the Indo-Aryan

Bhili of Basim.

languages, but in the Pusad Taluqa of that District there are some of these Bhils who speak a language almost identical with Kōlāmī. Whether these people are really Bhils or not we must leave to ethnologists to decide. Suffice it to say here that they are locally called 'Bhils,' and that their language, like that of any other language spoken by the tribe, is locally known as 'Bhili.' How many of the Basim Bhils speak this particular dialect is unknown, their language having been returned as the same as that of the other Bhils of the District. It was not till the language specimens had been received that the existence of this Dravidian dialect was discovered

Naikī.

by the Linguistic Survey. The other dialect is Naikī, the language of a few Darwe Gōṇḍs of Chanda District in the Central Provinces. It is almost extinct. It differs from Gōṇḍī and agrees with Kōlāmī in many important points. The name 'Naikī' is not confined to this dialect. In the Central Provinces and in Berar it is commonly used as a synonym of Banjārī, and in the Bombay Presidency 'Naik'ḍī' is the name of a Bhil dialect. These are both Indo-Aryan.

Kandhī, as the Oṛiyās call it, or Kuī (compare the meaning of the term 'Kōi' explained above), as its speakers call themselves and their

Kandhī.

language, is commonly called Khond by Europeans. It is the language of the Khonds of Orissa and the neighbourhood, well known to ethnologists for their custom of human sacrifices. It is unwritten and has no literature, but portions of the Bible have been translated into it, the Oṛiyā character being used to represent its sounds. The language is much more nearly related to Telugu than is Gōṇḍī, and has the simple conjugation of the verb which distinguishes the Dravidian languages of the south. Kandhī is spoken not only in Orissa, but also in the Ganjam and Vizagapatam Districts of Madras and in the neighbourhood. With these latter the Survey was not concerned, and no information is available as to whether they use any dialectic peculiarities. The Kandhī of the Linguistic Survey has two dialects, an eastern, spoken in Gumsur of Madras and the adjoining parts of Orissa, and a western, spoken in Chinna Kimedi.

Further north, in the hills of Chota Nagpur, and in Sambalpur and Raigarh to their south, scattered amid a number of Muṇḍā languages,

Kurukh.

we find the Dravidian Kurukh or, as it is often called, Oraō. Still further north, on the Ganges bank, we find the closely related Malto spoken by the Maler of Rajmahal. According to their own traditions, the ancestors of the tribe speaking these two languages lived originally in the Carnatic, whence they moved north ^{up}.

the Narbada River, and settled in Bihar on the banks of the River Sōn. Driven thence by the Musalmāns, the tribe split into two divisions, one of which followed the course of the Ganges and finally settled in the Rajmahal Hills, while the other went up the Sōn and occupied the north-western portion of the Chota Nagpur Plateau. The latter were the ancestors of the Kurukhs and the former of the Maler. This account agrees with the features presented by the two languages, which show that (like Gōṇḍī) they must be descended from the same Dravidian dialect that formed the common origin of Tamil and Kanarese.

In the Central Provinces Kurukh is usually called Kisān, the language of cultivators, or Kōḍā, the language of diggers. The latter name should not be confused with the name Kōḍā, which in Chota Nagpur is sometimes given to one or other dialect of the Muṇḍā Kherwārī. Kurukh has no literature, and is unwritten, save for translations

of the parts of the Bible and a few small books written by missionaries. It has no proper dialects, but a corrupt form, known as 'Berga Orāḍ,' is found in the Native State of Gangpur. The Kurukhs near the town of Ranchi have abandoned their own language, and speak a corrupt Muṇḍārī called 'Hōrōliā Jhagar.' After the Dravidian section of the Survey had been completed, there turned up a new

language spoken in Chota Nagpur, registered for the first time in the Census of 1901 under the name of Malhar. Like Berga Orāḍ, it turns out, so far as we can judge from the specimens received, to be merely corrupt Kurukh.

The last of these intermediate languages is Malto or Maler, spoken by the Maler tribe inhabiting the hills near Rajmahal on the Ganges.

Malto. The traditions regarding it, and its relationship to Tamil and Kanarese, have been told above, under the head of Kurukh. In its grammar it is closely related to that language, but it has borrowed much of its vocabulary from the Indo-Aryan languages spoken in its neighbourhood. It also appears to have borrowed to a small extent from the neighbouring Santālī. It must be remarked that the term 'Malto' is also used to denote the corrupt Bengali spoken by the Aryanized hillmen of the Rajmahal Hills. The Maler also call themselves Sauriā, and their language is also known to Europeans by the name of 'Rajmahālī.' Malto possesses no literature, except that portions of the Bible have been translated into it.

The Andhra Group is a group of dialects, for it contains only one language,—

Andhra Language.
Telugu Dialects.

	Survey.
Standard and Unspecified	19,735,840
Kōmṭāu	3,827
Salēwārī	3,660
Golarī	25
Bārādī	1,250
Vaḍarī	27,099
Kāmṭhī	12,200
Dāsarī	?
TOTAL	19,783,901

Telugu. As a vernacular, this is more widely spread and has a greater number of speakers even than Tamil. In the north it reaches to Chanda in the Central Provinces, and, on the coast of the Bay of Bengal, to Chicacole, where it meets the Indo-Aryan Oṛiyā. To the west it covers half of the Nizam's dominions. The district thus occupied was the Andhra of Sanskrit geography, and was called Telingana by the Musalmāns. Speakers of the language also

appear in the independent territory of Mysore and in the area occupied by Tamil. Only on the west coast are they altogether absent. The Telugu or Telinga language ranks next to Tamil among the Dravidian languages in respect of culture and copiousness of vocabulary, and exceeds it in euphony. Every word ends in a vowel, and it has been called the Italian of the East. It used to be named the Gentoo language from the Portuguese word meaning 'gentile,' but this term has dropped out of use among modern writers. It employs a written character nearly the same as that used for

Literature.

Kanarese, and having the same origin, as explained under the head of that language. Its vocabulary borrows freely from Sanskrit, and it has a considerable literature. The earliest surviving writings of Telugu authors date from the twelfth century, and include a *Mahābhārata* by Nannappa; but the most important works belong to the fourteenth and subsequent centuries. In the beginning of the sixteenth century the court of Kṛṣṇa Rāya of Vijayanagar was famous for its learning, and several branches of literature were enthusiastically cultivated. Allasāni Peddana, his laureate, is called 'the Grandsire of Telugu poetry,' and was the pioneer of original poetical composition in the language, other writers having contented themselves with translating from Sanskrit. His best known work is the *Svarōchisha-Manucharita*, which is based on an episode in the *Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa*. Kṛṣṇa himself is said to have written the *Amuktamālyada*. Another member of his court was Nandi Timmana, the author of the *Pārijātāpaharaṇa*. Sūraṇa (flourished 1560) was the author of the *Kalāpūrṇodaya*, which is an admired original tale of the loves of Nalakūbara and Kalabhāṣiṇī, and of many other works. The most important writer was, however, Vēmana (sixteenth century), the poet of the people. He wrote in the colloquial dialect, and directed his satires chiefly against caste distinctions and the fair sex. He is to-day the most popular of all Telugu authors, and there is hardly a proverb or a pithy saying that is not attributed to him.

Telugu did not fall completely under the operations of the Survey, and no information has been received as to the existence of any dialects. So far as I have been able to ascertain it has no proper dialects, unless we can call by that name a few tribal corruptions of the standard language. Such are Kōmṭāu, Sālēwārī, and Gōlarī, all reported from the District of Chanda in the Central Provinces. Kōmṭāu is the Telugu spoken by Kōmṭīs or shopkeepers; Sālēwārī that spoken by Sālēwārs or weavers; and Gōlarī that spoken in Chanda by Gōlars, a class of nomadic herdsmen. Elsewhere the Gōlars are reported to speak a dialect of Kanarese. Bēraḍī is the Telugu spoken by the Bēraḍs of Belgaum in the Bombay Presidency. They are notorious thieves, and also faithful village watchmen, protecting the inhabitants from the more enterprising members of the tribe. Their language is ordinary Telugu, with a slight admixture of Kanarese. Vaḍarī is the dialect of a wandering tribe of quarrymen found in the Bombay Presidency. It is simply vulgar Telugu. Kāmāṭhī is a similar dialect used by the bricklayers of Bombay and the neighbourhood, and similar again is the Dāsarī of the Dāsarus. These last are wandering beggars found in Belgaum, some of whom speak Kanarese and others Telugu.

Dialects.

Kōmṭāu.
Sālēwārī.
Gōlarī.

Bēraḍī.

Vaḍarī.
Kāmāṭhī.
Dāsarī.

It is not necessary to do more than register the names of Ladhāḍī and Bhariā, two mongrel dialects of the Central Provinces. They are both Ladhāḍī and Bhariā. dialects of people who in former time spoke Gōṇḍī. They have become Aryanized, and now speak corrupt Hindī.

Turning now to the extreme north-west, far away from all other Dravidian languages, in the heart of eastern Baluchistan, we come to Brāhūī. Brāhūī. Its speakers, the Brāhūīs, somewhat below the medium height, with oval face, round eyes, and high slender nose,¹ have no physical characteristics entitling ethnologists to class them as members of the Dravidian race of India proper, but that their language is in its essence Dravidian, though it has freely absorbed words from the vocabularies of the neighbouring Persian, Balōchī, and Sindhī, cannot be doubted. All controversy on the subject has been finally settled by Mr. Bray's works on the people and their language, which appeared after the publication of the Dravidian section of the Survey. The people lead a pastoral life, subsisting on the produce of their herds, and are generally inoffensive, sociable, and given to hospitality. They intermarry freely with non-Brāhūī tribes, and owing to the mixed character of the race nearly every Brāhūī is bilingual. According to Mr. Bray, the present Khan of Kalat used to talk Brāhūī to his mother and Balōchī to his father and brothers. Some of the Brāhūī tribes hardly speak Brāhūī at all; thus the Mīrwārīs, true Brāhūīs as they are reputed to be, speak Balōchī almost to a man. The language has no written literature. When written, the Persian character is generally employed, although in books written by Europeans the Roman character is preferred.

¹ See Bray, *The Brahui Language*, p. 4.



CHAPTER VIII.—THE INDO-EUROPEAN FAMILY. THE ARYAN SUB-FAMILY.

The original home from which the populations, whom we now group together under the name of Indo-Europeans, spread over Europe and parts of western and southern Asia, has been the subject of long discussion extending over many years. We English are probably most familiar with the cautious opinion expressed by the late Professor Max Müller that it was 'somewhere in Asia,' although his oft-repeated warning that the existence of a family of Indo-European languages does not necessarily postulate the existence of one Indo-European race, has too often been ignored by writers who should have known better. The earliest enquirers based their conclusions in the main on philology, and in former times it was universally assumed that the original seat should be sought for either on the Caucasus or on the Hindûkush. Since then other sciences have been made the handmaids of the problem. History, Anthropology, Astronomy, Geography, and Geology have all been pressed into the service. For a time philology fell into discredit, and a later opinion, based in the main on anthropology, asserted with equal decision that the locality must be looked for in north-western Europe. Still more recently a theory based on astronomy has placed it in the Arctic regions, while a school of patriotic Indian writers claims its own country as the Indo-European nidus. Later speculations have led us back to the old theory, and we have had Armenia and the country round the Oxus and Jaxartes pointed out to us as the place of origin. During the past twenty years, the opinion of Professor Otto Schrader was very generally accepted. According to him, the domicile to which we could trace back the oldest speakers of the form or forms of speech which ultimately developed into the modern Indo-European languages was probably to be sought for on the common borderland of Asia and Europe in the steppe country of southern Russia. Here they were a pastoral people; here some of their number gradually took to agriculture; and from here they wandered to the east and to the west. A later hypothesis, based on the distribution of vegetables and animals the names of which have survived from the most ancient times, on geological history, and on discoveries lately made in Asia Minor, is that put forward by Professor P. Giles in the Cambridge History of India.¹ According to him, the centre of dispersion must have been farther to the north and west than the locality proposed by Professor Schrader, that is to say it was most probably a tract which may roughly be considered as equivalent to the modern Austria-Hungary. Finally, the late J. de Morgan, in a book that appeared while these pages were passing through the press, placed the original home in Siberia, though he admitted Austria-Hungary as a secondary centre of dispersion.

The first great linguistic division of the people was into the so-called *centum*-speakers and *satem*-speakers. Most² of the former, who *Centum*- and *satem*-speakers. used some word cognate to the Latin *centum* (i.e. *kentum*) for the numeral 'hundred,' wandered westwards, and their language became the parent of that spoken by the Greek, Latin, Keltic, and Teutonic races. The latter, with whom

¹ Vol. I, pp. 65 ff.

² Not all. Remains of an old language of the *centum*-group have lately been discovered in the desert country of Central Asia.

we are immediately concerned, and who expressed the idea of 'hundred' by some word corresponding to the hypothetical form *satem*, in the main settled in the east, and from their language are descended the speech-groups which we call Aryan, Armenian, Phrygian, Thracian, Albanian, and Balto-Slavonic. We have to do only with the first of these six.

It is a matter for regret that this term 'Aryan' is frequently used, and especially by the English, in an extended sense, as equivalent to 'Indo-European.' It is really the name of one of the tribes of these *satem*-people, as used by these people themselves. In the following pages it will be used only with this meaning, and it will not be applied to other *satem*-people, or to languages, such as English, Latin, or German, which are sometimes called 'Aryan languages' in England. This word 'Aryan' is an Aryan word, originally used by the Aryan people, and among other suggested interpretations is said to mean 'of good family,' 'noble.' Indians and Eranians who are descended from an Indo-European stock have a perfect right to call themselves Aryans, but we English have not.¹

According to Professor Schrader's theory, at some time unknown to us these Aryans wandered forth from the Russian steppes, probably by a route north of the Caspian Sea. Thence as a united people, passing through Turkestan, they finally reached the country round the modern Khokand and Badakhshan, where they split up, one party entering India *viâ* the Kabul Valley, and the other proceeding westwards into what is now Merv and Eastern Persia. The great difficulty in accepting this route consists, as Professor Giles points out, in the geological history of the country north of the Caspian. He says² :—

The Caspian is an inland sea which is steadily becoming more shallow and contracting in area. Even if it had been little larger than it is at present, the way into Turkestan between it and the Aral Sea leads through the gloomy desert of Ust Urt which, supposing it existed at the period when migration took place, must have been impassable to primitive men moving with their families and their flocks and herds. But there is good evidence to show that at a period not very remote the Caspian Sea extended much further to the north, and ended in an area of swamps and quicksands, while at an earlier period which, perhaps, however, does not transcend that of the migration, it spread far to the east and included within its area the Sea of Aral and possibly much of the low-lying plains beyond. Turkestan in primitive times would therefore not have been easily accessible by this route. There is in fact no evidence that the ancestors of the Persians, Afghans, and Hindûs passed through Turkestan at all.

Assuming, on the other hand, that a centre (whether primary or secondary) of dispersion was what is now Austria-Hungary, a natural route from there to the East,—one which we know from history has been followed by other waves of migration,—would be over the Dardanelles³ across Asia Minor from west

¹ No completely satisfactory name has yet been found to connote the whole family of speeches which I call above 'Indo-European'. 'Indo-Germanic,' 'Indo-Teutonic,' 'Indo-Keltic,' 'Indo-Classic,' 'Japhetic,' 'Mediterranean,' 'Aryan,' and (for the speakers) 'Wiros,' have all been suggested, and some, especially 'Indo-Germanic,' are used at the present day. Something may be said for and against each of these names. I have selected 'Indo-European' as to me the least objectionable. Some well-known scholars maintain that the word 'Aryan' belongs to the common stock of all the Indo-European languages, and that in Europe it has survived in Keltic languages in the Old Irish word *aire*, a prince. That may be, but I know of no reason for believing that the word was ever employed to signify the speakers of Indo-European,—the 'Wiros' of Professor P. Giles,—as a whole. It is a convenient word, and that is really all that can be said for its extended sense of 'Indo-European.'

² *Op. cit.*, p. 69.

³ Here also there would be an obstacle to the passage of flocks and herds, but there is no reason for assuming that these necessarily accompanied the migration. It is far more likely that these people who crossed the Dardanelles appeared as wave after wave of barbarian invaders from the north, who lived by rapine and plunder. If, by origin, they were a pastoral people, there would have been no difficulty in their acquiring new flocks and herds as plunder along their eastward route.

to east, and into Persia through northern Mesopotamia. Such a migration would not have been an affair of a single movement of a single body of people, but would have been in wave after wave, and the Wiros,—as Professor Giles calls these speakers of the original parent of the Indo-European languages,—before they won through must have had many hard struggles with populations already existing. The earlier waves, perhaps beginning about 2,500 B. C., would, according to him, represent the ancestors of the Aryans, and the later those of the Armenians, Phrygians, Mysians, and Bithynians.

The Manda.

About 2,500 B. C. we find an Indo-European people called Manda in possession of northern and north-western Persia, or approximately what we now know as Media. These were *satem*-speakers. To their west lay the country of Subartu, inhabited by a non-Indo-European population, corresponding to the country north and north-west of Babylon, and including the kingdom of Mitanni in North Syria. Still further west, in Cappadocia of Asia Minor, was the Hittite capital near the present Boghazkeui, which about 2,000 B. C. was conquered by another wave of Indo-European invaders, known as Hatti¹, who were *centum*-speakers. We thus find that at about this period of ancient history there were two settlements of Indo-Europeans in the Near East,—one, an earlier, the Manda,—*satem*-speakers,—in Media, and the other, a later, the Hatti,—*centum*-speakers,—in Cappadocia, the two being separated by the non-Indo-European Subartu.

About 2,000 B. C. the Manda conquered Subartu, including Mitanni, and came into relations, more or less hostile, with the Hatti. Through the kingdom of Mitanni they also came into contact with the Egyptians, and correspondence between them and the Pharaohs has been found on the bank of the Nile at Tel el Amarna. In this correspondence (dating about 1400 B. C.) we find mention of several Mitanni princes bearing distinctly Indo-European names. On the other hand, among the relics of the Hatti of Boghazkeui, we find references to the gods of Mitanni,—whose names reappear later in India as Mitra, Indra, Varuna, and the two Nāsatyas,—and also, in connexion with chariot-races, Mitanni words of undoubted Indo-European origin, and in the forms which would be employed by *satem*-speakers. Finally, the Hatti were wiped out about 1200 B. C. by another wave of Indo-European invaders,—that of the Thraco-Phrygians,—and at about the same period, Mitanni was conquered by Assyria, and our interest in both here ceases².

Let us now return to the Manda in their earliest seat known to us, in and about Media. We have no information as to how they reached that locality, but, as stated above, Professor Giles looks upon these *satem*-speakers as the descendants of a very early swarm of Indo-European invaders, who, starting from Austria-Hungary, crossed the Dardanelles and pushed eastwards along Asia Minor and North Mesopotamia into Media. The Hatti would then represent a later swarm which did not get much farther than Cappadocia.

Here, I may be pardoned for making a digression, to tell of other theories put forward to account for the origin of these Mandas. Above, I have given the explanation of Professor Giles. If we accept his grounds for assuming that the original centre of dispersion was the Danubian plain,

¹ Or Hittite. The language of the original inhabitants, which was altogether different, may be called 'Protohatti' or 'Protohittite'.

² Part of the above is based on Professor A. Ungnad's *Die ältesten Völkerwanderungen Vorderasiens* Breslau, 1923.

and that these Mandas were the Aryans, or one of the Aryan tribes, who in later times took possession of Persia and invaded India, it is most likely that their route was the same as that taken subsequently by the Hatti, and that, after reaching Asia Minor, they crossed Mesopotamia to the seat where we find them mentioned in the earliest written documents. An alternative route round the north and east of the Black Sea has been suggested, but here the Caucasus would have presented a formidable barrier hardly passable to a pastoral people.

These Mandas, if not mentioned by name, but simply called Indo-Europeans of North Persia, have been accounted for in other ways.¹

Professor Keith, following Professor E. Meyer, agrees that these Indo-European names and words found in Mitanni and the neighbourhood, are Aryan words, that is to say neither Indo-Aryan or Eranian, but belonging to the original Aryan language from which both are derived. *The theory of Asiatic origin.* If I may venture an opinion on such a subject, it seems to me to be certain that this was actually the state of affairs, and I would go further and say that it is quite possible that some of the oldest hymns of the Rig Vêda, which are usually looked upon as having been composed in India, may have been originally composed in this Aryan language, and handed down from generation to generation by word of mouth till they received in India the form in which we have them at present.² But Professor Keith differs from Professor Giles in fixing the centre of dispersion. He maintains that this was in Asia, and that these *satem*-speaking Aryans came to Media from the East, not from the West, while the other speakers of Indo-European, most of whom were *centum*-speakers, went into Europe by a route north of the Aral and the Caspian. Before this is accepted, Professor Giles's arguments based on a vocabulary which points to the Danubian plain as the original centre of both *centum*- and *satem*-speakers must be considered.

A still later theory, founded not on language or ethnology, but on the history of the glacial period of Europe, has been put forward by the *The theory of Siberian origin.* late J. de Morgan.³ He would put the original centre of dispersion in Siberia, which was a semi-tropical region, at a time when North Europe was covered with ice. Owing to climatic changes at the end of the glacial period, Europe became habitable while Siberia became unable to support life, and its inhabitants were forced to migrate in various directions. The ancestors of the Indo-Europeans gradually wandered off at least in two directions—one body, mostly *centum*-speakers, going west into Europe, where (much as Professor Giles maintains) the Danubian plain became a secondary centre of dispersion. Most of the others, who were *satem*-speakers, went south-west and peopled Persia and the neighbouring countries. In this way he would explain the presence of the Mandas in Media, and of the ancestors of the Persians on the Persian plateau, and it was these two closely related, but independent bodies of immigrants that together formed the Aryans. These were only cousins, not brothers, of

¹ A summary of the more important of these will be found in Professor Keith's article "Indo-Iranians" in the *R. G. Bhandarkar Commemoration Volume*, pp. 81ff. Compare also the controversy between Professors Jacobi, Oldenberg, and Keith in *J. R. A. S.* 1909, pp. 720ff., 1095ff., 1100ff., and 1910, pp. 456ff., 464ff.

² For the original language of the oldest Vedic hymns, see footnote³ to page 115.

³ In his Article "Des Origines des Sémites et de celles des Indo-Européens" in the *Revue de Synthèse Historique*, Vol. XXXIV, Nos. 100-102, reprinted in Geuthner's *Ephémérides Bibliographiques* for June-July 1923. The question is discussed at much greater length on pp. 172ff of the same author's *Préhistoire orientale* which appeared while these lines were passing through the press. It is too late to do more here than draw attention to this important work.

the Hittites who came from the Danube valley, across the Dardanelles, into Asia Minor. The theory is attractive but has not, as yet, been thoroughly discussed by other scholars.¹

The above digression is however, hardly relevant to the history of Indo-Aryan languages. What is relevant, is the identification of the Mandas as Indo-Europeans twenty-five centuries before our era. It is agreed by writers who differ in other respects that these Mandas were Aryans. We therefore have here one firm chronological fact,—that there were Aryans settled, and powerful, in North and North-West Persia in 2500 B. C. Wherever they originally came from, we can find no sign that they had come from the South or from the South-East, and there is no evidence that they had come up there from Southern Persia, or (as some writers have thought) from India. We find them first in and about Media, and there they waxed powerful, and, as we have seen, conquered Subartu. To us, the immediate point of interest is that they had gods whose names we meet subsequently in India, and that they spoke a *satem*-language closely connected with the ancient Vedic Sanskrit. We have seen that, in the West, they were ultimately wiped out by the Assyrians, but, in Media, they maintained themselves side by side with brethren who had settled on the Persian plateau, and whose remains have lately been discovered by de Morgan. It is at this stage of history that we hear of the united Medes and Persians as Aryans. Some of these Aryans remained in Persia, while others continued their progress, entered India as the ultimate limit in one direction of the Great Adventure, and there became to a certain extent isolated from their brethren by the mountainous country of Afghanistan and the Hindūkush.

As has happened over and over again in similar cases², the language of those Aryans who became isolated in India among a strange population retained an archaic form, which was lost at a comparatively early period by those who remained in Persia. We have just seen how the early Indo-Aryans still called their gods by names which were in use while the joint Aryans were still within touch of Boghazkeui in Cappadocia, but which soon became obsolete in Persia. Thus, in the two countries the languages of each section of the Aryans developed on independent lines and at different rates, the rate of development in India being slower than that in Persia. The language of those that arrived in India became the parent of the Indo-Aryan languages, while the languages of the Aryans that remained in Persia developed into the modern Eranian (or, as it is often called, the 'Iranian') family of languages³.

As for the latter, at the time that their brethren set out in wave after wave on the further migration into India, their language was of course the same as theirs; but in

¹ In Vol. IV (1926), pp. 147ff of the Bulletin of the School of Oriental Studies Dr. Charpentier states his agreement with de Morgan's conclusion that Central Asia was the original home of the Indo-Europeans. A passing reference may also be made here to the suggestion that a relationship existed between Sumerian, the ancient language of Mesopotamia, and the early speech of the Aryans, contained in C. Autran's important article entitled *La Grèce et l'Orient ancien* in 'Babylonica,' Vol. VIII (1924), pp. 129ff.

² Professor Giles quotes the parallel cases of the Spanish spoken in Mexico and Peru, where the isolation of the speakers amid a more numerous native population has tended to conserve a dialect much more archaic and much more like the Spanish of the sixteenth century than is the language now spoken in Spain. To take another example nearer home, it is well known that much of the English spoken by the lower classes in Ireland is not a corrupt form of modern English, but is the English of Elizabethan days.

³ Strictly speaking, as we employ the term 'Indo-Aryan', we should also call the other linguistic sub-family the 'Erano-Aryan'. It is, however, shorter to use 'Eranian' without the addition of 'Aryan', and the use of the word will lead to no confusion. In the case of India it is different, for there are many Indian languages which are not Aryan. Hence, in order to connote the Aryan languages which have developed in India, we must use the term 'Indo-Aryan'.

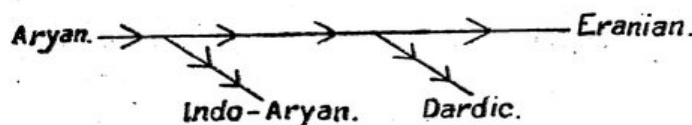
Persia, after they had been left behind, it gradually developed into Eranian. In the earlier stages of this development, when they spoke what we may call 'Proto-Eranian', i.e., while the language still retained much of the characteristics of the original Aryan joint language which had already been carried towards India, but had also shown tendencies towards some of the characteristics of Eranian, other waves of the Persian population also wandered like their predecessors towards the East, but took a more northerly course, north of the Hindükush, into the Pāmīr region. There they crossed the Hindükush, and

Dardic. descended into what is now the Dard country, where they probably found the ancestors of the modern speakers of Burushaski. These they either conquered and displaced, or else settled amongst, imposing on them their language. In this inhospitable country, separated from their home in Persia by tremendous mountain ranges, their Proto-Eranian tongue developed independently into the modern Dard languages, which still present features partly Eranian and partly Indo-Aryan¹.

As in the other cases, this first wave or set of waves of Proto-Eranian was in course of time followed by others which also took the same route north of the Hindükush. By this time the Proto-Eranian of Persia had become fully developed into Eranian, and the language of these later migrants has survived in the Ghalchah languages of the Pamirs which, as we shall see, are thoroughly Eranian in character. But they did not confine themselves to the Pamirs, for some of these early Eranian speakers wandered on even further east into Central Asia. These last have disappeared as speakers of Eranian tongues, but traces of their old language have been discovered as one of the results of the explorations in Central Asia carried out by Sir Aurel Stein².

	Survey.	Census of 1921.	
Eranian	4,617,890	1,987,943	We thus find the Aryan languages ultimately divided into three branches, —the Eranian, the Dardic, and the Indo-Aryan.
Dardic	1,195,902	1,304,319	
Indo-Aryan	226,060,611	229,560,555	
Total for Aryan languages in India .	231,874,403	232,852,817	

¹ This account of the development of Dardic differs from that given on pp. 7ff. of Vol. VIII, Pt. ii of the Survey. The latter was written on the older assumption of an Aryan settlement in Khokand and Badakhshan, and of the division there into two nationalities, one marching southwards into India, and the other westwards into Persia. The language of the former developed into Indo-Aryan and of the latter into Eranian. According to that account, the Dardic languages branched off from the Eranian after the split, but before Eranian had fully developed. I illustrated it by the following diagram:—



In the present account, the result is the same, but the diagram would be:—



² Here again, for the reasons given in the preceding footnote, the explanation of the development of the Eranian languages differs from that given on page 1 of Vol. X of the Survey. But, as before, the results are the same in this case also.

Omitting the Dardic languages for the present from consideration, we return to the Eranians and the Indo-Aryans. As in the case of the western Indo-Europeans, wherever these two Aryan branches wandered, they found themselves in the presence of aboriginal populations, who were either driven by the invaders into the mountainous tracts of their own country, or else,—and this in the majority of cases,—were conquered, and compelled to adopt an Aryan form of speech. Nevertheless, as Professor Justi remarks, the ethnical character of the Aryans, who had immigrated in comparatively small numbers, and probably with an insufficient number of women, became so altered, partly by intermixture with the numerically superior aborigines, and partly owing to climatic influences, that, anthropologically speaking, they have developed into races alien to those of Europe, with whom they are connected by a relationship of language. Just as, speaking generally, the inhabitants of Southern Europe have sprung from a stem which is not that of the Swedes or Frieslanders, so, from the point of view of anthropology, the Hindūs are a race altogether different from the Teutons, whose language is, nevertheless, related to Sanskrit, and the Persians of the present day show a far closer resemblance to Orientals of other stocks than they do to the linguistically related fair complexioned sons of the sea-coasts of the north.

CHAPTER IX.—THE ERANIAN BRANCH.

We have left the Eranian Branch of the Aryans in Persia, after noting that some of them spread eastwards north of the Hindūkush. These last are now represented by the inhabitants of the Pāmīrs, who

Eranian Branch.		Survey.	Census of 1921.	
Western (Persian)	.	7,579	6,268	still speak Eranian languages, and, farther
Eastern	.	4,610,311	1,981,675	east, even in Yarkand, we find tribes of
Total in India	.	4,617,890	1,987,943	Aryan build and complexion who have
				adopted the Tartar of the nations that have
				conquered them in later times. We may

therefore take the Sarīkol country on the east of the Pāmīrs as the eastern limit of the Eranian languages spoken at the present day. The Eranians who remained in Persia occupied Merv, the whole of Persia, Afghanistan, and Baluchistan. In the latter tracts, the eastern limit of Eranian speech may be taken as coinciding roughly with the river Indus, although a good deal of the country west of that river was once occupied by Indo-Aryans, and Indo-Aryan languages are still found there. It does not appear that the Eranians ever occupied the country now known as Kafiristan or the Laghman country between Kafiristan and the Kabul river. That tract seems to have been occupied before their arrival by Dardic tribes.

At the earliest period for which we have documentary evidence we find Eranian speech divided into two not very dissimilar languages, commonly called Persic and Medic, though Persic and Non-Persic would be better names¹.

The oldest form of the Persic language that we are acquainted with is the 'Old Persian' of the Achæmenides, of which the best known example is found in one of the versions of the inscription of Darius I or Dārayavahush (B. C. 522-486) at Behistūn. It was the official language of the court of Persepolis, and as such was used over the whole of Erān, being employed not only in government documents, but also, inevitably, as a common means of communication between the inhabitants of different provinces, much as Hindōstānī is used in India at the present day. The next stage of this Persic language which we meet in a written form is the "Middle Persian" or Pahlavī (*i.e.*, Parthian) of the Sassanides (third to seventh centuries A. D.), which bears much the same relation to modern Persian that the Prakrit languages do to the modern Indo-Aryan vernaculars. Finally, we have modern Persian, which developed into a language of literature and polite society, and thus became fixed at an early period. Save for the admixture of Arabic

¹ The characteristic features of the 'Medic' language were, and are, found not only in Media, which corresponds to the modern North-Western Persia and Kurdistan, the ancient Manda, but also in tracts far to the east. They are, moreover, characteristic of the language of the Avesta, which is East Eranian in origin. The term 'Medic' is, however, a convenient one as describing the tribe which was most important politically among those who used the non-Persic language. At the same time it should be carefully noted that although the Avesta is written in 'Medic', that is no ground for assuming that its birthplace was Media or anywhere in the neighbourhood. This view, it is true, is held by some scholars, but the question may not be begged by the wrong use of the word 'Medic'.

words, it has been on the whole the same language for a thousand years. Under Musalmān dominion it became one of the great vehicles of Indian literature, and some of the most famous Persian books, including the greatest lexicographical works, have been composed in India. It is nowhere a vernacular of that country, but is one of the languages of *belles lettres* among the educated Musalmāns. As stated by Mr. Baines in the Census Report for 1891, 'In Bengal and Rangoon there are remnants of the old ruling families of Delhi and Lucknow; in the Panjab, traders and immigrants are found, and the refugees from Afghanistan, and in Bombay, horse-dealers and emigrants from Persia who have settled down in the chief towns. Beyond these centres there is hardly any real Persian spoken, and a good deal of what is returned as such is but the better sort of Urdū.' In addition to the above we may mention a Persian colony in Baluchistan. Here we find 7,579 people speaking a Persian dialect locally known as Dēhwārī. These, however, are not by any means the only people of Eranic origin who have made India their home. In the times of the Greek successors of Alexander the Great and of the Indo-Scythians who followed them, adherents of the old Eranian sun-worship entered India as missionaries. Together with the elements of their religion, they were adopted into the ranks of the Brāhmans themselves, and still survive as Śākadvīpiya Brāhmans. In later times votaries of the rival and more orthodox cult of Zarathustra settled in Western India, in order to escape Islamitic persecution in their native land, and are now represented by the flourishing community of Parsees. But, in both cases, these immigrants have abandoned their Eranian vernacular and at the present day speak languages of India. The Persian of the Afghan refugees closely resembles the *Badakhshī* dialect of that form of speech, and contains a number of Paṣtō words.

The group of dialects which are classed together under the name of the 'Medic' language was spoken in widely separated parts of Erān. Media itself was in what is at the present time Western

Eastern Eranian.	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Afghanistan-Baluchistan Sub-Group.	4,610,311	1,981,675
Ghalchah Sub-Group
Total . . .	4,610,311	1,981,675

Persia, yet the Medic word for "dog," *spaka*, which Herodotus has preserved to us, can claim the Ōrmurī *spuk*, and the Paṣtō *spāe*, both spoken nowadays in distant Afghanistan, among its descendants, but not the neighbouring Persian *sag*. In fact

the one literary monument of ancient Medic that we possess, the Avesta, had its home, according to most authorities, not in Media, but in East Erān. The oldest parts of the Avesta probably date from about the sixth century before our era, and although large portions of it belong to a period many centuries later, we have no documents to illustrate the mediæval Medic, as Pahlavī does for Persic. All that we have are the modern languages that have developed from it. These are the Ghalchah languages of the Pāmirs, Paṣtō, Ōrmurī, Balōchī, and a number of dialects (of which the best known is Kurdish) spoken all over Persia and beyond. As the most important of these languages are spoken in the eastern portion of the ancient Erān, they are conveniently classed under the name of the Eastern Group of the Eranian languages¹ The dialects.

¹ This name 'Eastern' must be taken with the same reservation as that with which 'Medic' is here employed. The minor dialects are spoken not only in Central Persia, but even in the far north-west on the shores of the Caspian.

AFGHANISTAN-BALUCHISTAN SUB-GROUP.

	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Balōchī	704,586	485,408
Ormuri
Paṣṭō	3,905,725	1,496,267
Total	4,610,311	1,981,675

spoken in Persia do not concern us. Those more immediately connected with India may, on purely geographical grounds, be put under two sub-groups,—the Afghanistan-Baluchistan and the Ghalchah. I shall deal with them in this order, beginning from the south.

The home of the Balōchī language is, as its name implies, Baluchistan, but it extends considerably beyond the usually recognized limits of that province. On the east it reaches to the Indus, as far north as Dera Ghazi Khan, although the country along the banks of that river is mainly inhabited by Indians whose language is either Lahndā or Sindhī. Northwards, in British Baluchistan, it extends to near Quetta, or, say, the thirtieth degree of north latitude, and, as we go westwards, it is found even further than this, up to the valley of the Helmand, where Paṣṭō becomes the main language of the country. Still further west, where the lower course of the Helmand runs south to north, we come to the Persian province of Sistān. Here Balōches are found mixed with Persians, and the language of the tract is partly Balōchī and partly Persian. Indeed nomadic Balōches are found still further north, in Karmān and as far as central Khurāsān. South of Quetta, Balōchī is the language of the greater part of British Baluchistan. It extends westwards as the principal language of the country over Persian Baluchistan as far as Bampur, and is spoken by at least a part of the population so far west as Jask, or, say, the fifty-eighth degree of east longitude. This large tract of country contains also another nationality, non-Eranian, namely the Brāhūis, who have a language of their own. Brāhūi is spoken in the central part of British Baluchistan, and separates

Balōchī.

	Survey.
Eastern Dialect	376,822
Western Dialect	324,899
Unspecified	2,865
Total	704,586

Balōchī into two clearly distinguished dialects, *viz.*, Eastern Balōchī and Western Balōchī or Makrānī. The figures given for the Survey on the margin are, so far as the western dialect is concerned, estimates, and include 200,000 as the probable number of speakers of the language in Persian territory. Each of the dialects has several minor sub-dialects, but the main division into Eastern and Western Balōchī is sufficient for our present purpose. Besides phonetical and grammatical differences, the former is much richer in words borrowed from India. As in Paṣṭō, both dialects freely borrow Arabic and Persian words. Unlike their Afghān neighbours, the Balōches have found difficulties in pronouncing certain of the Arabic letters, so that some of the words taken from that language have been quaintly transformed.

Balōchī has but a small literature, most of which consists of folk-songs, tales, and the like, that have been collected by the late Mr. Dames and other scholars. We have grammars and vocabularies of both dialects, and several books of the Bible have been translated into it. For writing, both an adaptation of the Arab-Persian alphabet and the Roman alphabet are employed. Of all the East Eranian languages, Balōchī is the one that has most conserved archaic forms. Its consonantal system in some respects

stands on the same stage as that of the medieval Pahlavi. According to Professor Geiger, it still preserves unchanged letters which fifteen hundred years ago had begun to lose their original sound in the language which is now modern Persian. In its grammatical inflexions, also, several ancient forms are preserved. East of the Indus, Balöches, still using their native tongue, are found in some Native States as personal retainers and treasure-guards of the chiefs. These are usually Makrānis. The Indian census does not record nearly all the speakers of the language, as those belonging to Afghanistan and Persia were necessarily omitted from enumeration. As stated above, an estimate for these has been included in the figures of the Survey.

The number of speakers of Örmurī is unknown. It is an isolated speech, also called

Örmurī.

Bargistā or Barg^astā from the name of Mīr Barak, the eponymous ancestor of the tribe, and is the tongue of a few thousand people settled near Kanigoram in Waziristan and in the Logar Valley in Afghanistan, localities outside the census area. Although thus spoken in the heart of Afghanistan, except for borrowed words it has no connexion with the Paştō of the surrounding Wazīrī Pathāns, and though belonging to what we have named (with reservations) the East Eranian group of languages, it seems to me to be perhaps related to Kurdish. The tribe has an impossible tradition that they came from Yaman in Arabia, and that their language was invented for them by a very old and learned man named 'Umar Labān' some four hundred years ago. There are also a good many Örmurs settled in the North-West Frontier Province and in the Bahawalpur State, but they have all abandoned their own tongue. The language does not appear to possess any literature, but the Arab-Persian alphabet as adapted for Paştō has once or twice been employed for writing it.

Paştō is spoken in British territory in the trans-Indus districts as far south as

Paştō.		Survey.
North-Eastern Dialect	. . .	806,974
South-Western Dialect	. . .	676,402
Unspecified	. . .	63,349
Estimated number of speakers outside		
British Territory	. . .	2,359,000
Total		3,905,725

Dera Ismail Khan. Northwards it extends into the Yūsufzai country, Bajaur, Swat, and Buner, and through the Indus Kōhistān at least as far as the river Kandia, where the Indus takes its great turn to the south. In the northern parts of Swat, Buner, and the Kōhistān, many of the inhabitants speak

in their homes languages of Dardic origin, but Paştō is universal as a means of general intercommunication. In British territory its eastern boundary may roughly be taken as coinciding with the course of the Indus, although there are Paştō-speaking colonies in the Hazara and Attock Districts, and in Mianwali it is spoken on both banks of the river. After entering the district of Dera Ismail Khan, the eastern boundary gradually slopes away from the Indus, leaving the lower parts of the valley in possession of Lahndā, and some thirty miles south of the town of Chaudhwan it meets Balöchī, and turns to the west. The southern boundary passes south of Quetta and through Shorawak, till it is stopped by the desert of Baluchistan. Thence it follows the eastern and northern limits of the desert, with colonies down the rivers which run south through the waste, to nearly the sixty-first degree of east longitude. It then turns northwards up to about fifty miles south of Herat, where it reaches its limit to the north-west. The northern boundary runs nearly due east up to the Hazara country, in which the

inhabitants do not employ Paṣṭō but either Persian or a language said to be of Mongolian origin. Skirting the west, south, and east of the Hazara country, and just avoiding the town of Ghazni, it finally goes northwards up to the Hindūkush. Leaving Kafiristan to its east and north, it roughly follows the Kabul River up to Jalalabad, whence it runs up the Kunar so as to include Bajaur and Swat as already stated¹. In this irregularly shaped area the population is by no means entirely Paṣṭō-speaking. In British territory the Hindūs speak Lahndā, and in the dominions of His Majesty the King of Afghanistan there is a great admixture of races, including Tājiks, Hazārās, Kizilbāshīs, and Kāfirs, who speak the languages of the countries of their several origins. Roughly speaking, we may say that the country in which the majority of the population use Paṣṭō as their language is Southern and Eastern Afghanistan, the country to the west of the Indus from its southward bend down to Dera Ismail Khan, and a strip of Northern Baluchistan.

If the identifications of the names are correct, Paṣṭō speakers have occupied at least a portion of their present seat for more than two thousand five hundred years. They have been compared with the *Paktyes* of Herodotus, and with the *Pakthas* of the Vēdas, while the *Aparytai* of the Father of History are probably represented at the present day by the Afrīdīs, or, as they call themselves, the Aprīdīs. Their subsequent history does not concern us here, and it will suffice to record the fact that they have several times invaded India, that numbers are now settled in that country, where they are known as Pathans (a corrupt form of 'Paṣṭāna' or 'Paḡṭāna'), and that Shēr Shāh, the Emperor of Delhi, was of Afghān origin. Another class of Afghāns comes into India each autumn, and wanders over the country during the cold weather, usually as pedlars or horse-dealers, but sometimes for less reputable pursuits.

Paṣṭō has a literature of respectable extent and possessing works of merit, which are written in a modification of the Persian alphabet. It has received considerable attention from scholars both in India and in Europe. The rugged character of its sounds suits the nature of its speakers and of the mountains that form their home, but they are most inharmonious to the fastidious ears of other oriental lands. I have already² referred to the traditional Linguistic Survey of King Solomon's days, in which Asaf's specimen of Paṣṭō consisted of the rattling of a stone in a pot, and I may add here a well-known proverb, according to which Arabic is science, Turkī is accomplishment, Persian is sugar, Hindōstānī is salt, but Paṣṭō is the braying of an ass! In spite of these unfavourable remarks, though harsh-sounding, it is a strong, virile language, which is capable of expressing any idea with neatness and accuracy. In its general characteristics, it is much less archaic than Balōchī, and has borrowed not only a good deal of its vocabulary, but even part of its grammar from Indian sources. As a whole, it is a singularly homogeneous form of speech, although two dialects are recognized, a North-Eastern or Paḡṭō, and a South-Western or Paṣṭō. They differ little except in pronunciation, of which the two names are good and typical examples of the respective ways of uttering the same word. Each has several tribal sub-dialects, which also differ only in points of pronunciation. Nothing like the total number of Paṣṭō speakers has been recorded in any Indian census, which was necessarily confined to settled British territory.

¹ All the above is clearly shown in the map facing page 5 of Vol. X of the Survey.

² See Note ¹ on page 2.

Leaving Afghanistan and passing northwards over Kafiristan and the Chitral	
country we come to the <u>Ghalchah</u> sub-group of the Eastern	
Eranian languages. They are all spoken in or near the	
Pāmirs, and are closely connected with each other. They	
are <u>Wakhī</u> , spoken in Wakhan; <u>Shighnī</u> or <u>Khugnī</u> in	
Shighnan and Roshan, with its dialect <u>Sarikolī</u> , spoken in	
the Taghdumbash Pāmīr and <u>Sarikol</u> ; <u>Ishkāshmī</u> , with	
its dialects <u>Sanglichī</u> and <u>Zēbakī</u> , spoken in the country round <u>Ishkāshm</u> and <u>Zēbak</u> ;	
<u>Munjānī</u> or <u>Mungī</u> of <u>Munjān</u> , with its dialect <u>Yūdghā</u> ; and, according to some	
authorities, <u>Yaghnōbī</u> , spoken some way to the north of the Pāmirs round the head	
waters of the Zarafshan river. Of these the only one that immediately concerns us is	
<u>Yūdghā</u> or <u>Leotkuh-i-wār</u> , which has overflowed from the Pāmirs across the ridge of	
the Hindūkush by the Dorah Pass, and is spoken in the 'Ludkho' Valley leading from	
that pass to Chitral. The others are also heard in Chitral and its neighbourhood, but only	
in the mouths of visitors. None of them except <u>Yūdghā</u> and some <u>Wakhī</u> spoken by a	
colony of immigrants which has settled in the Northern Hunza country (<u>Guhyāl</u>) is	
vernacular in any territory immediately under British influence, and even for these two	
the Survey has failed to gather any statistics. Our knowledge of <u>Wakhī</u> and of <u>Shighnī</u>	
is mainly based on the researches of Shaw, and Sir Aurel Stein has given us materials	
regarding <u>Ishkāshmī</u> which have been incorporated with the Survey results of my	
inquiries into <u>Zēbakī</u> in a book published by the Royal Asiatic Society. Of <u>Munjānī</u>	
and its dialect <u>Yūdghā</u> very little is known. Of the latter General Biddulph has given	
us a short grammatical sketch and vocabulary, which was the foundation of all	
subsequent writings till the Survey put further materials for it and a first account of	
<u>Munjānī</u> at the disposal of students. To the philologist, the <u>Ghalchah</u> languages are	
of importance. They possess some grammatical forms in common with the Dardic	
languages to the south, and thus appear to be a link connecting the latter with the	
Eranian languages.	

CHAPTER X.—THE DARDIC, OR PISĀCHA, BRANCH.

We have seen above that the speech of those Aryans who remained in Persia developed in the ordinary course into what we have called the Eranian languages, while the speech of those Aryans who advanced into India, and there became isolated, developed at a slower rate, and retained for a longer period the characteristics of the original joint Aryan language. At an early period of the development of the Proto-Eranian language,—i.e. while the speech of the Persian Aryans still retained much of this original Aryan speech, and therefore still possessed much that was common to it and to the Indo-Aryan

Route.

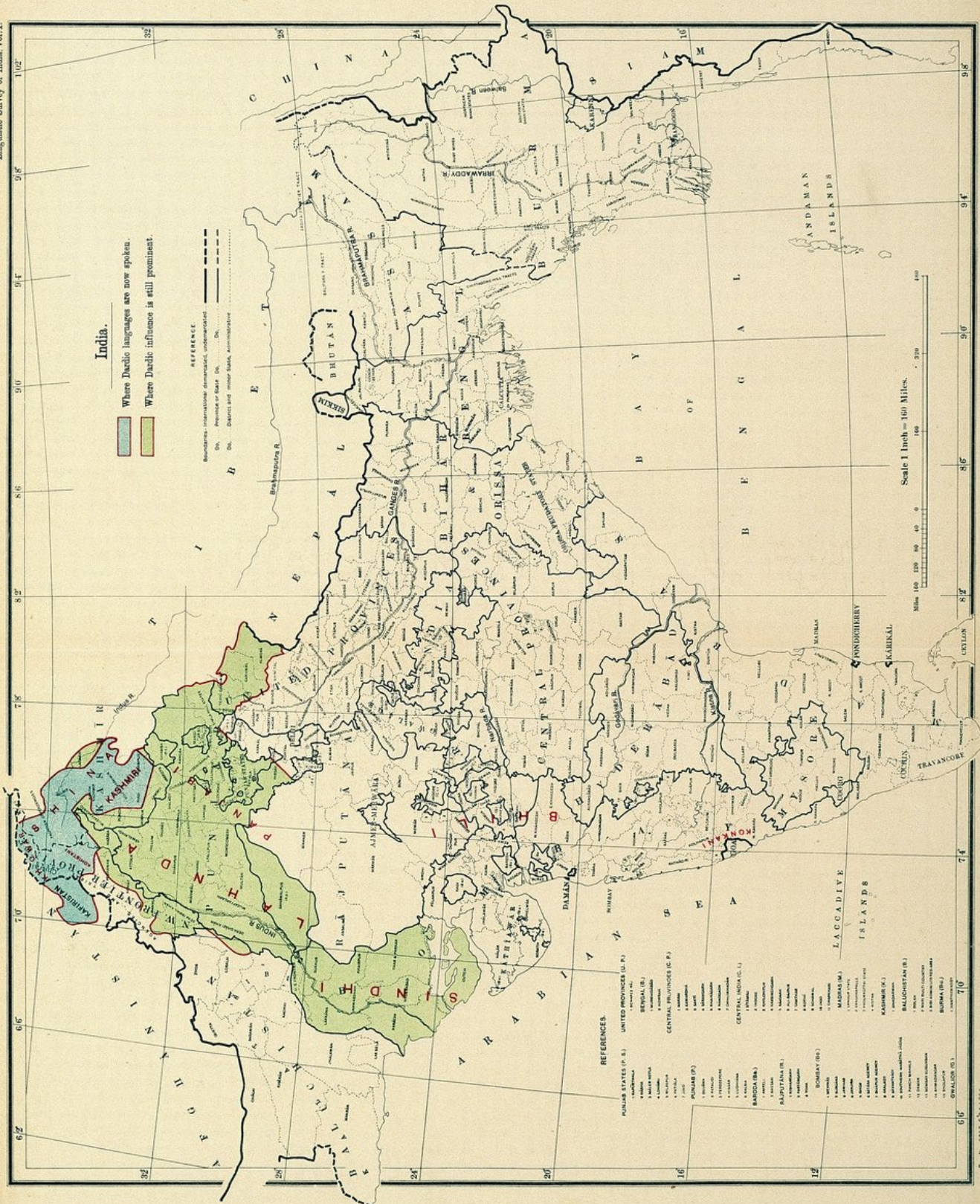
languages,—some of these Persian Aryans migrated eastwards north of the Hindūkush, occupied the Pāmīrs, and thence crossed the Hindūkush southwards, in one or more waves, into the country now known as Dardistan.¹ This country appears at that time to have been inhabited by the ancestors of the tribe now found in Hunza-Nagar speaking the non-Aryan Burushaskī, who were quite possibly remnants of the old inhabitants of north-western India driven thither by the arrival of the first Indo-Aryan invaders. In this rugged and inhospitable country the speech of the Aryan invaders from the north, influenced, no doubt by the non-Aryan tongue of the previous inhabitants, developed on its own lines,—neither Eranian nor Indian, but something between both. Other later Eranian speakers followed them to the Pāmīrs and there settled, becoming the ancestors of the speakers of the Ghalchah languages just described. We thus, at the present day, find the Hindūkush separating two not distantly related languages,—on the north, in the Pāmīrs, the Ghalchah languages, which are true Eranian, and on the south the semi-Eranian Dardic languages. The linguistic conditions of Dardistan moreover lead us to the conclusion that, in addition to what we may call the original Aryan immigration, there were subsequent Ghalchah invasions into the more accessible tracts, for the Khōwār language of the Chitral Valley,—easily accessible from the Pāmīrs,—has much closer connexion with the Ghalchah languages than have the other Dardic languages spoken in the more inaccessible Gilgit and Kafiristan.

The inhabitants of Dardistan are frequently mentioned in ancient literature. In

Nomenclature.

Sanskrit literature they are spoken of as 'Dārada' or 'Darada,' which name is often met with not only in geographical works, but also in the epic poems and the Purāṇas. Herodotus refers to them, though not by name, in his famous description of the gold-digging ants (III, 102ff.). They are the Daradrai of Ptolemy, the Derdai of Strabo, the Dardæ of Pliny and Nonnus, and the Dardanoi of Dionysios Periêgêtês. Together with all the other inhabitants of North-Western India they were spoken of by Indian writers as barbarians, or as degraded (*nashṭa*) Aryans. Their customs were looked upon with abhorrence. Stories were current of cannibalism being rife among them, and, amongst other opprobrious names, they were dubbed 'Pisāchas,' a word which was also used to signify a demon who lived upon raw flesh. Whether Pisācha was really a tribal name, later extended to denote such a demon, or whether the term 'raw-eating demon' was given as a nickname to the tribes inhabiting the Dard country, we cannot say; but we do know that their

¹ Or we may put it another way, avoiding questions of the stage of development; viz., that there were certainly tribal dialects among the original Aryans in Persia, and that some of these dialects tended to develop in the direction of Eranian more than others. The ancestors of the Dards would, in that case, be a tribe, or group of tribes whose dialect, while resembling, was not the same as that of the tribes that migrated directly into India.



language was the subject of some study¹, and that Indian grammarians have given us accounts of it under the name of 'Paiśāchī'. For this reason, in the earlier volumes of the Survey, I have given these Dardic forms of speech the collective name of the 'Piśācha Languages', but, as the double connotation of the word 'Piśācha' was liable to give offence, in the later volumes I have abandoned that name, and now call them 'Dardic'.

Dardistan, the present home of the Dardic languages, includes, from East to West, Gilgit and Kashmir, the Indus and Swat Kohistans, Chitral, and Kafiristan. Kafiristan does not fall within British territory, but, for the sake of completeness, an attempt has been made to describe the languages of that country. Dardic forms of speech are also found in other adjoining parts of Afghanistan,—Laghman and Nigrahar,—and Tirāhī, the Dardic language of the last named country, was once spoken in the Tirā Valley, now inhabited by Afridī Pathāns. In earlier times, the Dardic languages were much more widely extended. They once covered Baltistan and Western Tibet, where the inhabitants now speak Tibeto-Burman languages.² Philology also shows us that they must once have covered nearly the whole of the Panjab, for Panjābī and Lahndā, the present languages of that province still show traces of the earlier Dardic language that they superseded. Similarly, in western Afghanistan, south of the Afridī country, we find relics of Dardic in Ōrmurī, although, as we have seen, this is itself an Eranian tongue. Dards therefore must have been in Waziristan when the Ōrmurs first settled there. Further south, the tribe known as Khētrān in the Laghari Hills speak a curious mongrel form of Lahndā mixed with many Dardic forms. Still further south, we find traces of Dardic in Sindhī,—not so much in the literary language as in the rude patois of southern Sind known as Lārī. Turning to the North, the Indo-Aryan languages of the lower Himalaya from Chamba to Nepal show clear traces of Dardic. The Khaśas were a Dardic tribe, and they occupied all this tract and influenced its speech³. But this is not all. In the Bhil languages of western Central India, and even so far south as in the Kōnkaṇī Marāṭhī of Goa, we find stray peculiarities for which it is difficult to account unless we assume early Dardic influence⁴. Finally, it is well known that the Gipsies of Europe and their congeners of Armenia and Syria found their way to their present abodes from India, which they left from the North-West, and it is certain that Romani still retains many forms which can best be explained by a Dardic origin.

The Dardic languages of the present day fall into three groups,—the Kāfir, Khōwār, and the Dard. Of these, Khōwār consists of a single language, standing, as we shall see, somewhat apart from the others. For the Survey no figures were available for any of them, except for a portion of the Dard group.

	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Kāfir Group
Khōwār	...	121
Dard Group	1,195,902	1,304,198
TOTAL	1,195,902	1,304,319

¹ It is, however, possible that the language studied by the Hindi grammarians was not the native language of these Proto-Dards, but represented the Aryan language of North-West India as mispronounced by them.

² They extended at least as far east as Khalatse beyond Leh in Ladak. See A. H. Francke, *A Language Map of West Tibet*, J.A.S.B., Vol. LXXIII, Pt. i, (1904), pp. 362 ff., and *The Dards of Khalatse in Western Tibet*, M.A.S.B., 1906, pp. 413 ff.

³ Vol. IX, Pt. iv, pp. 2ff.

⁴ Vol. IX, Pt. iii, p. 2; Vol. VII, p. 168.

The Kāfir group includes four languages spoken in Kafiristan, the Land of the Unbeliever, a mountainous tract lying immediately to the west of Chitral, in Afghan territory. Here there is no such language as 'Kāfirī,' though it has often been written about.¹ The country is divided up by a number of tribal languages, of which four,—Bashgali, Wai-alā, Wasī-veri or Veron, and Ashkund are discussed in the Survey. Besides this, there are five other languages closely allied to the true Kāfir languages, but not spoken in Kafiristan itself. These form the Kalāshā-Pashai sub-group, and are Kalāshā, Gawar-bati or Narsāti, Pashai, Laghmānī or Dēhgānī, Dirī, and Tirāhī. No statistics are available for any of these. The Bashgal River of Kafiristan takes its rise in the southern face of the Hindūkush, and joins the Chitral River near Narsat. Its valley is the home of the Bashgali Kāfir language, which is the speech of the Siāh Pōsh (black raiment) Kāfirs generally. All the tribes who wear the dark-coloured raiment seem at once to understand each other, and to be able to converse fluently and without hesitation. Besides the information collected for the Survey, we have a grammar of this interesting language from the pen of Colonel Davidson.

The Sufed Pōsh (white raiment) Kāfirs occupy the centre and south-east of Kafiristan, and consist of three tribes, the Wai, the Prēsun or Veron, and the Ashkund.

The language of the Wai is 'closely related to Bashgali.' It is spoken in the lower valley of the Waigal, a river which takes its rise in the interior of Kafiristan, and, after receiving the Wezgal (in whose valley Wasī-veri is spoken) enters the Kunar near Asmar. The Prēsuns inhabit an inaccessible valley in the heart of the country, to the west of the Bashgal area. Their language is called Wasī-veri or Veron, and differs widely from Bashgali, the speakers of the two languages being mutually unintelligible to each other. Wai and Wasī-veri are described for the first time in the Survey. The specimens of the latter were obtained with considerable difficulty. All that we know about it is based on the language of one wild and frightened Prēsun shepherd, whom the diplomacy of our frontier officers enticed to Chitral. This was interpreted by a Bashgali Shaikh, who knew a little of his language.

The remaining language, Ashkund, is spoken to the south-west of the tract inhabited by the Prēsuns. We know nothing about it except its name, its locality, and the fact that it is not understood by the other Kāfirs.² All the speakers of this group inhabit countries beyond the frontier of British India,—most of them, indeed, are subjects of His Majesty the King of Afghanistan.

The Kalāshā Kāfirs inhabit the Dōāb between the Bashgal and Chitral Rivers.

They are not 'Kāfirs' in the strict sense of the term, as they have adopted the Musalmān religion, and are subject

¹ One ingenious gentleman has even given a specimen of it in an account of the country. But on examination it turns out to be Amazulu Kāfir of South Africa!

² Since the above was written Dr. Morgenstierne has had an opportunity of examining the Ashkund language when he was in Kabul. He tells me that, while partly resembling Bashgali, on the whole it is most closely related to Wai. In the Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society for 1862, pp. 1 ff., Professor E. Trumpp gave an account of the 'Language of the so-called Kāfirs of the Indian Caucasus'. This is referred to in Vol. VIII, Part ii, p. 31 of the Linguistic Survey, where I stated that the language there described as in some respects resembled Bashgali. Dr. Morgenstierne now informs me that it is essentially identical with one dialect of Ashkund.

to the Chitrālīs, although the Bashgalīs claim them as slaves. Previous to the Linguistic Survey, our only authority regarding the language of this tribe was contained in the works of Dr. Leitner. Lower down the Chitral River, at its junction with the Bashgal, in and about the country of Narsat, dwell the Gawars, who also have a

Gawar-bati.

language of their own, known as Gawar-bati, or 'Gawar speech,' of which a vocabulary was given by General Bid-dulph under the name of Narisati. Further east lies the territory of the Nawab of Dir.

Diri.

Here, in the year 1838, Leech discovered a language called Dirī, of which he published a short list of words. Since then it appears to have died out, either being superseded by Paṣṭō or becoming merged into the neighbouring Gārwi of the Swat Kohistan. Lower down the Chitral River, which

Pashai.

has now become the Kunar, on its right bank, dwell the Pashai. Previous to the Survey, the only information which had been available regarding their language had been based on short lists of words collected by Burnes and Leech. Pashai, properly speaking, is the speech of the Dēhgāns of Laghman and of the country to the east of it as far as the Kunar. It is also called Laghmāni, from the tract where it is spoken (the abode of the Lambagai of Ptolemy) and Dēhgāni, because most of its speakers belong to the Dēhgān tribe. The boundaries of the language are said to be, roughly, on the west the Laghman River, on the north the boundary of the Kāfirs, on the east the Kunar River, and on the south the Kabul River, although the riverain villages on the left bank of the Kabul speak Paṣṭō. It has two well-marked dialects, an eastern and a western. South of Pashai, across the

Tirāhi.

Kabul, in the Nigrahar country we find Tirāhi spoken by a tribe which as the result of a feud abandoned its original home in the Tirā (commonly spelt Tirah) Valley. The people have a bad reputation among their neighbours, and habitually deny their origin to outsiders. Leech, in 1838, succeeded in collecting a few of their words, and all the resources of the Survey failed to obtain any further information. After the Survey was concluded, thanks to the ever kind help of Sir Aurel Stein, I have become possessed of sufficient materials to give a brief account of this form of speech, which is published in the supplement. Here it is sufficient to say that these materials show clearly that Tirāhi is closely connected with Pashai and Gawar-bati. The presence of these two Dardic languages in the heart of Afghanistan is of more than ordinary interest to the ethnologist and the philologist.

Khōwār is the language of the Khōs, the most important tribe of the State of Chitral. On its west it has the Kāfir languages, and on its

Khōwār.

east the Shinā spoken in Gilgit and the neighbourhood. This last belongs to the Dard Group, and it is to be noted that the Kāfir and Dard groups are much more nearly related to each other than either is to Khōwār. On the other hand Khōwār shows traces of connexion with the Ghalchah languages spoken north of the Pāmirs which are wanting in the other two groups. It thus resembles a somewhat alien wedge inserted between the other two groups and thrusting them apart, coming into the country subsequently to the other two after it had developed some of the Ghalchah characteristics. This is borne out by the traditions of the Khōs themselves, which point to a later immigration. In spite however of its somewhat independent character, Khōwār is nowadays certainly a Dardic language, and

cannot, like the Ghalchah languages, be classed as Eranian. It is also called Chatrārī, a word usually pronounced 'Chitrālī' by Europeans. It is the principal language of Chitral and of that part of Yasin called 'Arinah' by the Shins. From the latter word the language was called Arnyā by Dr. Leitner. It extends down the Chitral River as far as Drosh, and is bounded on the north by the Hindūkush. No dialects have been recorded. Leitner, Biddulph, and O'Brien are our principal authorities for this language.

The word 'Dard' properly belongs to the tribes immediately to the north of

DARD GROUP.		Survey.	Census of 1912.
Shinā	28,482
Kāshmīrī	1,195,902	...	1,268,854
Kōhistānī	6,862
Total	1,195,902	...	1,304,198
Shinā.			

Kashmir, but has in modern times been extended to include all the inhabitants of Dardistan. I have followed this by giving the term 'Dardic' to all the languages of Dardistan, while I reserve 'Dard' for its proper use as indicating the group of languages of eastern Dardistan, viz., Shinā, Kāshmīrī, and Kōhistānī. Shinā is the

language of the Gilgit Valley, and of the Indus Valley from Baltistan to the River Tanagir. It also extends to the south-east of the last-named river, and occupies a large block of mountain country between Baltistan and the Valley of Kashmir. It is thus spoken in the original Dard country, and is far the purest language of the group. As explained on page 109, in former times it extended far beyond its present boundaries and covered Baltistan and Western Tibet, where it has now been superseded by Tibeto-Burman dialects. It has several well-defined dialects, the most important being Gilgitī of the Gilgit Valley. Besides the dialects spoken in the Shinā country proper there are also dialects called by the Baltīs 'Brokpā' or 'Highlanders speech.' These are the Brokpā of Dras, which differs little from the Shinā spoken in Gurēz, the Brokpā of Skardu which is the same as the Shinā of Astor, and the curious isolated colony of Shinā, spoken near the frontier line between Baltistan and Ladakh, called the Brokpā of Dāh and Hanū, which is a relic of the Dard language once spoken still further east. This dialect, spoken in the heart of a Tibetan-speaking country, far from the Dard country proper, differs so widely from the other two Brokpās, that the respective speakers are unintelligible to each other, and have to use the Tibetan Baltī as a means of intercommunication. Shinā has been written about by several authorities, of whom the earliest are Leitner and Biddulph. Since then, it has been very fully dealt with by Colonel Lorimer and Dr. Grahame Bailey. The Dāh-Hanū dialect has been described by Shaw.

Kāshmīrī has its home in the Valley of Kashmir and the contiguous valleys to its south and east. Beyond these limits it is not used as a national language. In the Panjab it is spoken by immigrants, either Pandits or colonies of weavers or of carpenters. There is also a small settlement in the United Provinces which is permanent, and consists principally of educated Hindūs. Kāshmīrī is a mixed form of speech. Its base is a Dard language closely akin to Shinā, and many of its commonest words, not to mention its complicated system of pronunciation, are certainly of Dardic origin. But the Happy Valley has received numerous immigrants from India proper; for centuries it has been one of the most celebrated homes of Sanskrit study, and its indigenous literature has grown up

under the influence of Sanskrit models. It thus, to a casual observer, and indeed to the learned Kāshmīrīs themselves, presents the appearance of a language as truly Indian as Marāṭhī or Hindōstānī. Moreover all the civilization of the country has come from India and it is the only language of Dardistan that has received literary cultivation. No one has a higher appreciation of the learning and genius which have adorned Kashmir from very early times than the present writer. It has legends that the Valley received its population from India, and this is very probably true so far as regards the upper classes, but that the Kāshmīrī language has a Dardic basis is a matter of which no philologist can have any doubt. Kāshmīrī has been studied for the past thirty years, and we have now a complete grammar, and a dictionary is in progress of compilation. To the philologist it is of great interest, for we see in it a language which is, so to speak, caught in the act of transforming itself from the analytic to the synthetic stage. Owing to the extensive use of epenthesis, its pronunciation is as difficult to foreigners as English is, and it possesses many broken vowel sounds that are not easily reduced to writing. Besides slight variations in the Valley itself, it has one distinct dialect,—Kashtawārī spoken in Kishtwar to the south-east of the Valley proper. South of the Valley there are also three or four mixed dialects leading into Pañjābī. A more important division is that into the Kāshmīrī of the Musalmāns (who are many, and uneducated) and that of the Hindūs (who are few and educated). Musalmānī Kāshmīrī abounds in foreign words borrowed from Persian, often in distorted forms. Hindū Kāshmīrī is very free from admixture with Persian, and, although the home language of Paṇḍits, is singularly free from Tatsamas. Most of its copious vocabulary is composed of honest Tadbhavas¹.

Kāshmīrī.		Survey.	
Standard . . .		1,039,964	
Kashtawārī . . .		7,464	
Mixed Dialects . . .		45,316	
Unspecified . . .		103,158	
Total . . .		1,195,902	

Most of the literature of Kashmir is written in Sanskrit, and is deservedly famous. A few works, including a remarkable series of Śaiva verses by an old poetess named Lal Dēd, a Rāmāyaṇa, and a history of Kṛishṇa, have been written in Kāshmīrī itself. It has two alphabets,—a modification of the Persian used by Musalmāns, and the ancient Śāradā alphabet akin to Nāgarī, which is still used by Hindūs. The Serampur Missionaries published a Kāshmīrī version of the Scriptures in the Śāradā character early in the last century. Modern translations have been in the Persian script.

The River Indus, after leaving Baltistan, flows pretty nearly due west through the Chilas country, till it receives the River Kandia, which takes its rise not far to the north in the maze of mountains between Chilas and Chitral. From this point to its entry into British territory, the Indus runs in a southerly direction through groups of hills known collectively as the Indus Kōhistān, and inhabited by a number of wild tribes who all speak varieties of a Dard language allied to Shinā, but mixed with Lahndā and Paṣhtō, which is called Indus-Kōhistānī or Maiyā.

the Indus Kōhistān lie in order the valleys of the Swat, Panjkora, and Kunar rivers. Those of the first two are known as the Swat and as the Panjkora Kōhistāns respectively. Here the language of the bulk of the people was formerly a Dard dialect allied to Maiyā, but is now, owing to Paṭhān domination,

¹ Regarding the terms 'Tatsama' and 'Tadbhava,' see p. 127, below.

almost invariably Paṣtō. Only a faithful few still cling to their ancient language, though they have abandoned their Aryan religion, and the dialects they speak are known as Gārwi and Tōrwālī. The tribes who speak these Gārwi, Tōrwālī. Kōhistānī dialects have never been famous for devotion to the politer arts, and Kōhistānī has no literature of any kind. No statistics are available as to the number of speakers.

CHAPTER XI.—INDO-ARYAN BRANCH. INTRODUCTORY.

We have seen above that the Aryans reached Persia as a united people, and that at an early period, before their language had developed into Eranian, some of them had continued their eastern progress into India. We are not to

The gradual immigration. suppose that this took place all at once, in one incursion. Wave after wave advanced, the people first establishing themselves in Afghanistan, and thence, in further waves, entering India through the Kabul Valley¹. We see traces of this gradual advance in the Vēdas themselves. If Professor Hillebrandt² is right in his conclusion, the tribe over which King Divōdāsa ruled inhabited Arachosia (Kandahar), while under his descendant Sudās its members are found on the Indus, and have already turned into legend the martial exploits of his ancestor. This is a thing for which generations are required. It will readily be understood, therefore, that at the earliest period at which we have any cognizance of India the Panjab was in the possession of a number of Indo-Aryan tribes, not necessarily on good terms with each other, and sometimes speaking different dialects. As each new tribal wave came from the west, it pushed the earlier settlers before it or to one side, or else went round them.

The earliest documents that we possess to illustrate the language used by the Indo-Aryans of this period are contained in the Vēdas, although we know that they still worshipped some gods by the same names as those which were known to their Aryan ancestors while yet in the Manda country. The hymns forming the collection known as the Vēdas were composed at widely different times and in widely different localities, some in Arachosia³, in what is now Afghanistan, and some in the country near the Jamna; but owing to their having undergone a process of editing by those who compiled them into their present arrangement, they now show few easily recognizable traces of dialectic differences. Attempts, it is true, have been made to discover such, but they are of small importance compared with the fact that dialects appear to be mentioned in the hymns as in actual existence⁴.

Earliest documents. **Evidence of early dialects.**

¹ This is the usually accepted account. At the time of writing, Mr. Pargiter, in his *Ancient Indian Historical Tradition*, has put forward a new and somewhat startling theory that the Aryans entered India, not through the North-West Frontier, but through the Mid-Himalayan region. This is a proposition that will certainly demand considerable discussion,—which it has not yet received,—before it can be finally decided one way or the other. It is primarily a question for ethnologists and historians rather than for philologists, and therefore, without venturing to prejudice the question, I here follow the account of the Indo-Aryan invasion of India which has hitherto been generally accepted. See also Note¹ on p. 117.

² *Vedische Mythologie*, I, 107, etc. Cf. also his *Aus Alt- und Neuindien*, pp. 7ff.

³ Professor Hertel maintains that the older hymns of the Rig Vēda were even composed in Persia, before the migration of the Aryans into India, and that they were sacred hymns of the Aryans before the great split. See 'Das Brahman' in *Indogermanische Forschungen*, XLI, p. 188. This is quite possible, and agrees with the discovery of the names of Aryan (Manda) gods in Mitanni (see p. 97 above).

⁴ The language of the hymns, as we have them now, is necessarily that of the time when the text was fixed by the editors, or a little more antiquated. Before that they had been handed down by word of mouth from generation to generation, and, as time went on, each generation, without being aware of the fact, had slightly altered the sounds of the language. The change from the language of one generation to that of the next was very slight, but the sum of the changes over several hundred years must have been considerable. Even if we admit that the sacred character of the hymns tended to conservatism, and, more especially, to preserve unchanged particular words which were either specially holy or which had become unintelligible, the original language in which the oldest hymns were composed must have been very different from, and in a much older stage of development than, even the antique mould in which they have been preserved. On this point, compare Professor H. Oldenberg's *Die Hymnen des Rigveda*, Vol. I, pp. 370 ff., Professor Wackernagel's *Altindische Grammatik*, I, p. X, and W. Petersen's article "Vedic, Sanskrit, and Prakrit", in the *Journal of the American Oriental Society*, XXXII (1912), p. 419. We have a striking parallel in the hymns of the Kashmir poetess, Lal Dōd, who composed her hymns in the 14th century A. D. These have been carefully preserved as sacred songs by generations of professional reciters, but, during the five hundred years that have elapsed since their composition, they have been handed down to us only by word of mouth. The result is that, as we now have them, they, sacred as they are, are in modern Kāshmirī, with a few antique forms which strangeness or unintelligibility has preserved. Fortunately, however, in this case, we have also other Kāshmirī works composed by learned men at about Lal Dōd's time, and preserved in writing in their original form. We have therefore actual specimens of the language really used by Lal Dōd and her contemporaries, and can estimate the extent to which her original words have been transformed in the course of oral transmission. See Grierson and Barnett, *Lalā Vākyañi*, page 128.

While it is impossible to discriminate between each successive wave of these migrations it is easiest to distinguish between the earliest and the latest. In the year 1880 Hoernle¹ suggested that the evidence of the modern vernaculars of India and their predecessors justified the idea of there having been two Indo-Aryan invasions of India, one preceding the other, by tribes speaking different but closely connected languages. I am not prepared myself to accept this theory² of that great scholar in all its details, as it seems to me to be unnecessary to explain the difference of language by postulating two distinct invasions. It is easier to explain it by what is an undoubted fact,—that the invasion or, if we prefer the term, the immigration, was a gradual process extending over a very long period of time. Whether we distinguish between the languages of two separate invasions, or between the languages of the earliest and of the latest immigrants, the result is the same. The earliest comers spoke one dialect, and the new comers another. Hoernle, however, went further. He looked upon the second invaders as entering the Panjab like a wedge, into the heart of a country already occupied by the first immigrants, and forcing the latter outwards in three directions, to the east, to the south, and backwards to the west. Here again, while not denying it, I am not prepared, in our present state of knowledge, to accept this 'wedge-theory' as necessarily correct. It is equally possible that the latest comers may have found their way opposed and have gone round their predecessors, down the Indus Valley, and thence, in later times, across India to their south and ultimately behind them on the east. In either case the political result would be very similar. There would be a central people surrounded on the west, south, and east, by another. If the wedge theory is correct, it would be the central people, and if it is not, it would be the outer people who would be the latest arrivals. The political state of affairs is borne out by Indian tradition. In the Vēdas themselves we have records of wars between king Sudās, whose kingdom lay to the west,—on the Indus,—and the Bharatas, against the Pūrus, an Aryan tribe which his poet called *mṛidhravāch*, i.e., speaking a barbaric tongue³, far to his east in the neighbourhood of the Ravi and the Jamna; and the contest between the rival priest-poets of the Sarasvatī and of the Indus forms one of the best known episodes of that collection. Similarly, the great Bhārata war, between the Kurus and the Pāñchālas gives us hints of much value. Since Lassen's time it has been recognized that the latter were older settlers than the former. Speaking very roughly, they occupied the country to the east of the upper course of the Ganges and the central Dōāb, or the heart of what in after years was called the 'Madhyadēśa' or 'Midland'. Putting accidental alliances to one side, this war, as Mr. Pargiter has well shown⁴, was from the broadest point of view a war between Pāñchāla and the south of the Midland on the one side against the rest of India, to their west, south, and east, on the other. The chief allies of the Pāñchālas were the Pāṇḍavas, a mountain tribe, who practised polyandry and were on friendly terms with other clans that dwelt in the Himalaya. Nay, Lassen goes even further, and maintains that so long had the Pāñchālas

¹ *Comparative Grammar of the Gaudian Languages*, p. XXXI.

² I am compelled to state this clearly, because my name has more than once been associated with Hoernle's as a thorough supporter of his argument. In fact it has even been called 'Hoernle and Grierson's two-invasion theory.' While fully admitting my indebtedness to Hoernle's deductions, I have always been of opinion that it is not necessary to postulate two distinct invasions.

³ So translated by Professor Hillebrandt, *Vedische Mythologie*, I, 90, 114. See *Rig Vēda*, VII, xviii, 13.

⁴ See *J. R. A. S.* 1908, pp. 333 and 602.

preceded the Kurus that their complexion had been altered by the Indian climate, and that the war was really between a dark and a fair-complexioned race. The *Mahābhārata* itself, which, as we now have it, is an epic written in praise of the *Pāṇḍavas*, calls tribes settled on the Indus, which were undoubtedly Aryan, by the opprobrious name of 'Mlēcchha', thus denying them even their common Aryanhood. Many similar items could be taken from the same work did space permit¹.

It is reasonable to suppose that the central group of tribes should have expanded as time went on, and should have thrust out in each direction the tribes that surrounded them. The only alternative would have been extinction. In mediæval Sanskrit geography we find one tract of country continually referred to as the true, pure, home of the Indo-Aryan people. The name given to it, *Madhyadēśa* or 'Mid-land', is noteworthy in this connexion. It extended from the Himalaya on the north to the Vindhya Hills on the south, and from what is now Sirhind (properly 'Sahrind') on the west to the confluence of the Ganges and the Jamna on the east. According to legend, from end to end of this Mid-land, there ran, unseen to men, the holy stream of the Sarasvatī, on whose bank, in Vedic times, was the principal seat of these central tribes. Now, the

Inner and Outer Sub-branches.

modern Indo-Aryan vernaculars fall at once into two main sub-branches, one spoken in a compact tract of country almost exactly corresponding to this ancient *Madhyadēśa*, and the other surrounding it in three quarters of a circle beginning in Hazara in the Panjab, and running through the Western Panjab, Sindh, the Marāṭhā country, Central India, Orissa, Bihar, Bengal and Assam. Gujarat we know to have been conquered from Mathurā (which was in the *Madhyadēśa*), and this is the only part of India in which we find at the present day that the Inner sub-branch has burst through the retaining wall of the outer.

Between these two sub-branches there is a remarkable series of antithetic facts.

Comparison of the two
Phonetics.

In pronunciation they are sharply opposed; each has preferences which will at once occur to every philologist. The most remarkable difference is in the treatment of the sibilants, which has existed since the time of Herodotus. The inner sub-branch hardens them; every sibilant is pronounced as a hard dental *s*. The outer languages (like those of the Eranian branch) seem, almost without exception, to be unable to pronounce an *s* clearly. In Persia the Greeks found an *s* pronounced as *h* or even dropped altogether. The representation of the river 'Sindhu' by 'Indus' is a familiar example. In the

¹ It has been suggested more than once that the later immigrants need not necessarily have entered India by the same route as that followed by their predecessors. Dr. Spooner (J. R. A. S. 1915, pp. 426, 430) has proposed that they were ancient Magians, who came by sea to Gujarat and thence spread over the south of the Midland and over eastern India. Mr. Pargiter (*Ancient Indian Historical Tradition*, pp. 295ff.), taking a much wider view, maintains that the Aryans, as a whole, entered India over the central Himalaya, and not at all by the north-west. As I have said above (p. 115, note¹) this is a theory which has not yet been discussed, and on which it would be premature to base any philological conclusions; but, even at the present stage, it may be admitted that it is not impossible that the tribes represented in the *Bhārata* war by the *Pāñchālas* and their allies, from their locality, may have represented an immigration independent of a main immigration by the north-west. The latter would, in that case, represent the ancestors of the speakers of the modern outer languages. It is equally not impossible that the outer tribes may have come over the Hindūkush by the same route as that followed by the ancestors of the Dardic tribes and may have formed a kind of vanguard of the latter which spread west, south, and east round the Aryan tribes whom they found settled in the Panjab and beyond. But at present these are all suppositions, and no decisive proof can be offered for any of them; though it must be admitted that the languages of the modern representatives of the outer tribes show points of resemblance with Dardic languages which are wanting in the languages of the descendants of the central tribes. On this last point, see Hillebrandt, *Aus Alt- und Neuindien*, p. 11.

east the old Prakrit grammarians found *s* softened to *śh*. At the present day we find the same shibboleth of nationality; in Bengal and part of the Marāṭhā country *s* is weakened to *śh*, and in Eastern Bengal and Assam it is softened till its pronunciation approaches that of a German *ch*. On the other hand, on the North-Western Frontier and in Kashmir, it has become an *h*, pure and simple.¹

In the declension of nouns there are also differences. The Inner sub-branch is, in the main, a set of languages which are in the analytic stage.

Declension.

The original inflexions have mostly disappeared, and grammatical needs are supplied by the addition of auxiliary words which have not yet become parts of the main words to which they are attached. Familiar examples are the case suffixes, *kā*, *kō*, *sē*, etc. of Hindī. The languages of the Outer sub-branch have gone a stage further in linguistic evolution. They were once, in their old Sanskrit form, synthetic; then they passed through an analytic stage—some are passing out of that stage only now, and are, like Sindhi and Kāshmīrī, so to speak, caught in the act,—and have again become synthetic by the incorporation of the auxiliary words, used in the analytic stage, with the main words to which they are attached. The Bengali termination of the genitive, *-ēr*, is a good example.

The conjugation of the verb offers very similar peculiarities. Here, however, it is necessary to go into greater detail. Broadly speaking,

Conjugation.

two tenses and three participles of Old Sanskrit have survived to modern times. These are the present and future tenses and the present active and past and future passive participles. The Old Sanskrit past tense has disappeared altogether. The old present tense has survived in every modern language, and, allowing for phonetic growth, is the same in form everywhere, although its meaning has frequently changed; for instance, in Kāshmīrī it has become a future indicative, and in Hindī it is generally used where we should employ a present subjunctive. The old future has survived, but only here and there, and principally in western India. Others of the modern languages use instead a periphrasis based on the Old Sanskrit future passive participle, and when they wish to say 'I shall strike', their speakers really say, without knowing it, 'it is to be struck by me'. The original past tense has universally disappeared and all the modern languages employ in its place a similar periphrastic form based on the old past participle passive. Instead of saying 'I struck him', they all, without exception, say 'he (was) struck by me'. Here it is that we see the great contrast in the treatment of the verb between the inner and the outer families. It will be noticed that in the tenses formed from passive participles, the subject of the verb, 'I' has been put into the ablative, or, as it is in these circumstances called, the agent case. 'I' has become 'by me'. Now in the old Sanskrit, 'by me' could be represented in two ways². We could say *mayā*, which was a separate distinct word, or we could employ the syllable *mē*, which could not stand by itself, but could only be attached enclitically to a preceding word. In just the same way there was a twofold

¹ It may be objected that this weakening of *s* is due to different causes in different languages. So it is, but the same causes were in operation in the Midland, and there had not this result. In other words, the Outer languages did not defend their sibilants, while the Inner languages did.

² Sanskrit scholars will recognize that this is not literally true, as, according to the grammarians, the enclitic *mē* belonged to the dative and genitive, not to the instrumental. They will also recognize that owing to the interchange of case-forms which took place at an early stage in the linguistic history of India, the point is of no importance. Compare Pischel in ZDMG. xxxv (1881), p. 714.



series of enclitic and non-enclitic forms for the second personal pronoun, and for both in both numbers. These enclitic pronouns are familiar to Europeans. In Latin, 'give to me' was 'date mihi'; in Italian, it is 'datemi', in which *mi* is an enclitic pronoun. Similarly we have an enclitic pronoun when Mr. Punch makes a tipsy man say 'gimme' for 'give me'. Now the modern Indo-Aryan languages show most clearly that the Outer sub-branch is derived from a dialect or dialects of the Old Sanskrit which freely used these enclitic pronouns with passive participles, while the Inner is descended from a dialect or dialects which did not use them in such cases. The result is that in the Inner sub-branch the bare participles are used for every person without change of form, —*mārā* means alike 'I struck', 'thou struckest', 'he struck', 'we struck', 'you struck' and 'they struck';—while in the Outer, the enclitic pronouns have generally become permanently fixed to the participle, and have developed into personal terminations like what we have in Latin and Greek. In these languages, 'I struck', 'thou struckest', 'he struck', and so on, are all different words, each of which tells by its termination who the striker was. This important distinction is at the bottom of the altogether different appearances which the two sub-branches present. The grammar of each of the Inner languages can be written on a few leaves, while, in order to acquire an acquaintance with one of the Outer languages, page after page of more or less complicated declensions and conjugations must be mastered.

The limits of these two sub-branches of the Indo-Aryan languages may be defined as follows:—
 Geographical position of Inner languages. The Inner sub-branch is bounded on the north by the Himalaya, on the west by, roughly speaking, the Jhelum, and on the east by the degree of longitude which passes through Benares. The western and eastern boundaries are widely apart and include a good deal of debatable ground in which the two families meet and overlap. If these limits are narrowed so as to include only the purer languages of the Inner sub-branch, the western boundary must be placed at about the meridian of Sirhind in Patiala, and the eastern at about the meridian of Allahabad in the United Provinces. Between Sirhind and the Jhelum the language is Pañjābī, which contains many forms, increasing as we go westwards, for which the only explanation is that west of Sirhind, or, we may say, to the west of the Sarasvatī, the country was originally inhabited by tribes partly Dardic, and partly belonging to the Outer family (if the two are not different ways of saying the same thing), who were conquered and absorbed by members of the Inner, whose language gradually superseded theirs, just as Hindōstānī is now superseding Pañjābī. Pañjābī is one of the Inner languages, but it contains many forms which have survived either from Dardic or from an Outer dialect. Between Allahabad and Benares, or, in other words, in Oudh, Baghelkhand, and the Chattisgarh country, the language is Eastern Hindī, which is an intermediate form of speech, possessing the characteristics of both sub-branches. To the south, the boundary of the Inner sub-branch is well defined, and may roughly be taken as corresponding to the southern watershed of the Nerbada River. On the west, the sub-branch merges into the Outer Sindhī through Rājasthānī, and into Lahndā (also Outer) through Pañjābī. As stated above, it has burst through the retaining wall of Outer languages and reached the sea in Gujarāt, though Gujarātī, the language of the last-named country, still shows traces of the old Outer language which it has superseded. The remaining Indo-Aryan languages belong to the Outer sub-branch.

Taking the Indo-Aryan languages as a whole, they fall into the following groups :—A Resultant grouping of the modern Indo-Aryan Vernaculars. North-Western, a Southern, and an Eastern (belonging to the Outer Sub-branch); a Mediate Sub-branch (intermediate between the Outer and the Inner); and a Central and a Pahārī (belonging to the Inner Sub-branch). We thus arrive at the following list of languages with the number of speakers of each :—

	Survey.	Census of 1921.
(Sanskrit)		(356)
A.—Outer Sub-branch	117,778,342	123,328,825
I.—North-Western Group	10,162,251	9,023,972
1. Lahndā or Western Pañjābī	7,092,781	5,652,264 ¹
2. Sindhi	3,069,470	3,371,708
II.—Southern Group	18,011,948	18,797,831
3. Marāṭhī	18,011,948	18,797,831
III.—Eastern Group	89,604,143	95,507,022 ²
4. Oṛiyā	9,042,525	10,143,165
5. Bihārī	37,180,782	34,342,430 ³
6. Bengālī	41,933,284	49,294,099
7. Assamese	1,447,552	1,727,328
B.—Mediate Sub-branch	24,511,647	22,567,882²
IV.—Mediate Group	24,511,647	22,567,882 ²
8. Eastern Hindī	24,511,647	22,567,882 ²
C.—Inner Sub-branch	83,770,622	83,663,492²
V.—Central Group	81,665,821	81,745,955 ²
9. Western Hindī	38,013,928	41,210,916 ³
10. Pañjābī	12,762,639	16,233,596 ³
11. Gujarātī	10,646,227	9,551,992
12. Bhīlī	2,691,701	1,855,617
13. Khāndēśī	1,253,066	213,272
14. Rājasthānī	16,298,260	12,680,562
VI.—Pahārī Group	2,104,801	1,917,537
15. Eastern Pahārī or Naipālī	143,721	279,715
16. Central Pahārī	1,107,612	3,853 ⁴
17. Western Pahārī	853,468	1,633,915
Unspecified	54
Total	226,060,611	229,560,555

Of the above, Marāṭhī and Eastern Hindī are groups of dialects, not of languages. The languages of the Pahārī Group are those spoken in the lower Himalaya. Eastern Pahārī or Naipālī is called Khas-Kurā by those who speak it. Central Pahārī includes the hill dialects spoken round Naini Tal and Mussoorie. They are Kumaunī and Garhwālī. Western Pahārī means the group of dialects spoken in the hills north of the Panjab, such as Jaunsārī, Sirmaurī, Kiūṭhālī, Kuluhī, and Chamēālī.

The total number of speakers of Indo-Aryan languages is considerably more than half that of the estimated population of Europe (400,000,000).

¹ In the Census, many speakers of Lahndā are shown under Pañjābī.

² These figures are adjusted estimates. In the Census returns, nearly all the speakers of Bihārī and Eastern Hindī are shown as speaking Western Hindī, the unadjusted Census figures being :—

Bihārī	7,331
Eastern Hindī	1,399,528
Western Hindī	96,714,369

³ This includes many speakers of Lahndā.

⁴ In the Census, most of the speakers of Central Pahārī are shown as speaking Hindī.

CHAPTER XII.—THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE INDO-ARYAN LANGUAGES.

As stated above, the earliest specimens of the actual Aryan vernaculars of India are to be found in the hymns of the *Ṛig Veda*. Most of these hymns were undoubtedly originally composed in the actual spoken language of their authors, a natural, unartificial language, as compared with the more artificial language subsequently developed in Brahmanical schools and called Classical Sanskrit. Although they have been edited, so as to obscure dialectic peculiarities, by the Brāhmanas who compiled them into one collection, these hymns furnish invaluable evidence as to what was the house-language of the earliest Aryan inhabitants of India.

From the inscriptions of Asōka (*circ.* 250 B. C.) and from the writings of the grammarian Patañjali (*circ.* 150 B. C.), we learn that by the third century before our era an Aryan speech (in several dialects) was employed in the north of India, and, having gradually developed from the ancient vernaculars spoken during the period in which the Vedic hymns were composed, was the ordinary language of mutual intercourse. Parallel with it, the so-called Classical Sanskrit had developed, from one of these dialects, under the influence of the Brāhmanas as a secondary language, and had achieved a position much the same as that of the Latin of the Middle Ages. For centuries the Aryan vernacular language of India has been called Prakrit, *prākṛita*, i. e., the natural, unartificial language, as opposed to Sanskrit, *saṃskṛita*, the polished, artificial, language. From this definition of the term 'Prakrit', it follows that the vernacular dialects of the period of the Vedic Hymns, as compared with the comparatively artificial *saṃskṛita* language of these hymns as they have been preserved by the Brāhmanas who compiled them, were essentially

Prakrits, and as such they may be called the *Primary Prakrits* of India. The vernaculars which developed from them and which continued developing¹, alongside of the Sanskrit whose growth was arrested by the grammarians of the Brahmanical schools, until they became the modern Sanskritic Indo-Aryan vernaculars, may be called the *Secondary Prakrits*; while the final development, these modern vernaculars themselves, as they have existed for the past nine hundred years, may be called *Tertiary Prakrits*. It is with these Tertiary Prakrits that we are immediately concerned.

It stands to reason that no distinct border line can be drawn between the Primary Prakrits² and the Secondary Prakrits, or between the Secondary Prakrits and the Tertiary

We have no positive information regarding the earliest condition of the Secondary Prakrits. They appear to us first in their vigorous youth in the Asōka inscriptions. We know, on the other hand, that the change from the Secondary Prakrits to the Tertiary

¹ Mr. Petersen in 'Vedic, Sanskrit, and Prakrit' (JAOS. XXXII (1912), pp. 423ff.) maintains that the Prakrits represent Sanskrit as mispronounced by the enslaved aborigines of India, and compares this with the Negro English of the Southern States of America, and with the mispronunciation of children. The suggestion is fascinating, but I am unable to accept it. The change from Sanskrit to Prakrit is so clear an example of regular linguistic development, and is paralleled so exactly by the change of Latin to the Romance languages, that I cannot conceive the necessity of any other explanation. Of course it is quite possible that the broken Sanskrit of the aborigines may have had some influence, but it cannot, in my opinion, have been the cause of the development.

² It is quite certain that, even during the Vedic period, the vernaculars in actual use already contained many words in the same stage of development as Pāli, which is a Secondary Prakrit.

was, as might be expected, so gradual that, at or about the approximate border line, it is impossible to state whether the language belongs to the Secondary or Tertiary stage. At the same time there is no difficulty in recognizing the main distinctive peculiarities of each group. In the primary stage the language is synthetic and has no objection to harsh combinations of consonants. In the secondary stage the language is still synthetic, but diphthongs and harsh combinations of consonants are eschewed, so much so that, in its latest artificial literary developments, it arrives at a condition of almost absolute fluidity, becoming a mere collection of vowels hanging for support on an occasional consonant. This weakness brought its own Nemesis, and in the tertiary stage we find the hiatus of contiguous vowels abolished by the creation of new diphthongs, declensional and conjugational terminations, consisting merely of vowels, worn away, and a new kind of language coming into existence, no longer synthetic, but analytic, and again reverting to combinations of consonants under new forms, which three thousand years ago had existed, but which two thousand years of attrition had worn away. Nay more, in some of the modern vernaculars, mainly those which I have called the 'Outer' ones, we see the analytic form of language again disappearing, and being replaced by a new synthetic form of language, similar in its course of development to that of the Indo-European *Ursprache* of the pastoral tribes in Central Europe or Siberia.

As to whether the very earliest form of the Secondary Prakrit language had any dialects we are not in a position to say positively, but, as we know that there were dialects in the Vedic times, there is every reason to believe that it possessed them too. It covered a wide extent of country, from the Indus to the Kosi, and it would be surprising if there were no local variations of speech. Moreover, two hundred and fifty years before Christ, we find the edicts of Asoka written in this language, and here we see that the then existing Aryan vernacular of India did contain at least two main dialects, a Western and an Eastern Prakrit. The particular stage of their development at which the Secondary Prakrit had by this time arrived, was crystallized by the influence of Buddhism, which used it for its sacred books. It is now known as the Pāli language. As a vernacular it, however, continued its course of development, and, in later stages in various dialects, is known as the Prakrit *par excellence*. When we talk of Prakrits, we usually mean this later stage of the Secondary Prakrits, when they had developed beyond the stage of Pāli, and before they had arrived at the analytic stage of the modern Indo-Aryan vernaculars.

These Prakrits became, in later times and under the influence of religious and political causes, the subject of literary study. Poems and religious works were written in them, and they were freely used in the drama. We have grammars of them written by contemporaries or by men who lived only a short time after they had become dead languages. It may be taken as a convenient date for fixing the memory, that these Prakrits were dead languages by, in round numbers, 1000 A.D. All that we know about them is founded on the literature in-

which they have survived, and in the grammars written to illustrate that literature. Unfortunately we cannot accept this literature as illustrating the actual vernaculars on which it was founded. To adapt them to literary purposes the writers altered them in important particulars, omitting what they considered vulgar, reducing wild luxuriance to classical uniformity, and thus creating altogether artificial products suited for that artificial literature which has ever been so popular in India. These literary Prakrits cannot, therefore, be considered as representing the actual speech of the people at any epoch, although they are based upon it, and a veil is drawn by them between us and it which it is not always easy to lift. We are able, however, to distinguish (as in the Asōka Inscriptions) that there was a Western Prakrit and an Eastern Prakrit, each possessing distinctly marked characteristics. The principal form of the Western was called *Śaurasēnī*, the language of Śaurasēna or the middle Gangetic Dōāb and its neighbourhood, and of the Eastern, *Māgadhi* or the language of Magadha, the present South Bihar. Between these two there was a kind of neutral ground, the language of which was called *Ardha-māgadhi*, or Half-Māgadhi, which partook of the nature of both languages. Its western boundary was somewhere near the present Allahabad, but we cannot say certainly how far east it extended. According to tradition, it was the language in which Mahāvīra, the Jain apostle, preached (he belonged to this side of India), and a language based on it was used in the older Jain scriptures. Closely connected with it, but leaning rather to the Eastern than to the Western, was the *Māhārāṣṭrī*, or language of Mahārāṣṭra, i.e., the Berars, and the country adjoining. It became the main language of Prakrit poetry. On the other hand, in the extreme north-west of India, bordering on the Eranian tongues of what are now Afghanistan and Baluchistan, there must have been an unnamed speech, whose existence is vouched for by the next stage of the Prakrits, to be presently described, and which was a development of the particular dialect of Old Sanskrit spoken on the banks of the Indus.

While the Prakrits, by being reduced to writing, became fixed, exactly as Sanskrit had become fixed in the Brahmanical schools, and remained unchanged as a literary form of speech for many generations, the true vernaculars on which they were founded continued their own course of development. The earliest specimens of the literary Prakrits which have come down to us are contained in dramatic works (subject to strict conventional rules as regards language) and lyric poetry, the work of accomplished artists. Narrative poems do not appear in Prakrit till a much later period. But nevertheless, among the less literate, narrative poems which have not survived did exist¹. Such poems were written, not under the rules of any learned school, but for the general public; and, unlike the works in contemporary literary Prakrit, they borrowed freely from the spoken language of the people for whose benefit they were composed. In this way, a work written, say, in Oudh, although in Prakrit, would differ widely in its vocabulary and its methods of expression from one written, say, in Gujarāt. The popular words,—known as *dēśya*, or

¹ See Professor Jacobi's edition of the *Sanatkumāracaritam*, pp. xviii ff. We know of one of these narrative poems called the *Taraṅgavatī*, written in Oudh by a man called Padalipta. The date of this was not later than the 5th century A.D. Owing to the number of provincialisms contained in it, it gradually became unintelligible, and a thousand years later was translated into literary Apabhraṁśa under the name of the *Taraṅgalōlā*, by an anonymous writer. The *Taraṅgavatī* itself has been lost, but the *Taraṅgalōlā* survives, and has been admirably translated into German by Professor Leumann in the 'Zeitschrift für Buddhismus', III, pp. 193ff., 272ff. It is a most interesting and charming romance.

'local',—used in such Prakrit works had no literary authority and were not as a rule admitted into the literary Prakrits. They hence had no permanence,—their meanings became gradually forgotten as the local speeches changed,—fell into disuse, and were superseded by others, so that, as time went on, these narrative poems became unintelligible and required translation, for which purposes vocabularies were compiled of the *dēśya* words used in them. These local variations of Prakrit were named 'Apabhraṃśas' a word meaning 'corrupt speech' or 'decayed speech', and, as explained above, they varied from country to country.

As these works in the local Apabhraṃśas became more and more popular, a tradition of style developed, and one particular Apabhraṃśa, called the Nāgara Apabhraṃśa, received, like the Prakrits, fixation as a literary dialect, in which, in western India, works in Apabhraṃśa were henceforth composed. Having gained general acceptance, this became recognized over the greater part of India as a vehicle for literary work. As so used, it varied slightly from place to place, but these variant forms,—they can hardly be called dialects,—were, it must be understood, by no means the same as the several independent local Apabhraṃśas or other languages spoken by the people among whom each was employed for literature. They were each a local variation, not of the local dialect, but of the one language which we call literary Apabhraṃśa. Indian grammarians have given us a list of no less than twenty-seven of these forms of literary Apabhraṃśa, with brief notices of the peculiarities of each, and each named after the country in which it was employed¹. As so fixed, the language (with due regard for phonetic development) closely agreed with literary Prakrit in its vocabulary, while its grammar was that of the *Dēśya* of the time of its petrification². While therefore literary Apabhraṃśa cannot be taken as representing the speech of any part of India, or even as representing one particular phase of linguistic development, it does, on the whole, give us a very fair picture of a stage of language considerably later than that of the literary Prakrits, and, at least as regards grammatical forms, serves as a link between them and the earliest stage of the Tertiary Prakrits. Once recognized as a language worthy of being used for polite literature, Nāgara Apabhraṃśa remained fixed with comparatively little change for some centuries,—long after it had become a dead language and after the Tertiary Prakrits had become fully established. The grammarian of western India who gave the fullest account of it was Hēmachandra, who flourished in the 12th century A.D., and to whom it was a classic as much as Sanskrit itself. He described what was in his time a dead language, preserved only in the schools of literary men. It was based on the Apabhraṃśa once spoken in Gujarat and western Rajputana, and in his grammar he gives numerous verses as examples of the literary form of the dialect. It is an interesting fact that some of these verses have survived almost word for word, with the necessary phonetic changes, in the modern language of western Rajputana, and are still current in popular speech.³

¹ That they were not actual vernaculars of the countries after which they were named is plain from these descriptions. These Apabhraṃśas were found even in countries of which the local language was Dravidian.

² This is only to be taken as a broad statement, for the vocabulary also contained a certain amount of *Dēśya* words, old and new, while grammatical forms belonging to literary Prakrit are also occasionally employed.

³ See the important series of articles by the late Pandit Chandradhar Śarmā Gulēri entitled *Purāṇi Hindī* in Vol. II (New Series, Sam. 1978) of the 'Nāgari Prachārīṇi Pāṭṭikā'. Especially pp. 18ff. and 44.

As to when the local Apabhraṁśas lost currency owing to their being superseded by the literary dialect, it is impossible to make any definite statement. Poems in the *Bhāṣā*, i.e., probably in some local Apabhraṁśa, are mentioned as having been written in the sixth century A.D.¹, and in the tenth century Apabhraṁśa is recognized as a literary language standing beside Sanskrit and literary Prakrit. The date of the adoption of Apabhraṁśa as a classical form of speech must therefore lie between these two extremes. On the other hand, the Tertiary Prakrits were employed for literary purposes by at least the beginning of the thirteenth century. Allowing the time necessary for any language to gain such favour as to be deemed worthy of employment in literature, we may safely consider that the speech of modern India had left the Prakrit stage, and had reached the stage of the Tertiary Prakrits, i.e., of the modern Indo-Aryan vernaculars, by the year 1000 A.D., the year in which Maḥmūd of Ghaznī made the first of his fifteen invasions of India.

It is, therefore, to Apabhraṁśa rather than to the literary Prakrits, and much more rather than to Sanskrit, that we must look for explanations of the developments of the modern Indo-Aryan vernaculars. Apabhraṁśa dialects, Sanskrit and, specially, the literary Prakrits will often throw valuable side-lights on our inquiries, but the immediate foundation of our investigations must be Apabhraṁśa. It is true that only one form², the literary Nāgara, spoken in western India, has been preserved to us by literature, but with the aid of the Prakrit grammarians it is not difficult to reconstruct the chief features of the local Apabhraṁśas from which the modern languages are descended. It will be sufficient to give a list of these local Apabhraṁśas together with the modern languages which correspond to them at the present day. The Apabhraṁśa of the country round the lower Indus was known as Vṛachāḍa. This we can directly connect with the modern Sindhi and Lahndā, the latter being spoken in the ancient country of the Kaikāyas, although the tracts in which these two languages are now vernacular must once have had, as part of their population, a considerable number of speakers of Dardic languages, who have left behind them on the existing forms of speech traces of their former existence. South of the Narbada River, running nearly across India from the Arabian Sea to Orissa, there must have been spoken a number of dialects all related to the Vaidarbha or Dākshinātya Apabhraṁśa, whose head-quarters were Vidarbha, the modern Berar, known in Sanskrit as the 'Great Kingdom',—Mahārāṣṭra. It, and allied Apabhraṁśas, represent the parent of the modern Marāṭhī. To the east of Dākshinātya, and reaching to the Bay of Bengal, was the Audra or Autkala Apabhraṁśa, from which was descended the modern Oṛiyā. North of Audra, and covering the greater part of the present provinces of Chota Nagpur and Bihar, together with the eastern half of the United Provinces up to about the meridian of Benares, was the important Māgadha Apabhraṁśa, the parent of the modern Bihārī, one of whose dialects, Magahī, still bears the ancient name. It was the principal dialect which corresponded to the old Eastern Prakrit, and not only Audra, already mentioned,

¹According to the *Śrīharṣacarita* of Bāṇa (6th cent.), one of the author's friends is specially mentioned as a poet in the *Bhāṣā*.

²A striking proof of the existence of dialects in Vedic times is conveyed by the fact that Apabhraṁśa, and indeed all the Secondary Prakrits, contain forms which cannot be explained by any reference to Classical Sanskrit. Such is the locative termination *hi*, derived immediately from the Pāli and Old Sanskrit (but not the literary Sanskrit) *dhi*. This corresponds to the Greek termination -*oi*, and must (as *dhi*) have been used in the Vedic period, although excluded from the standard dialect from which the Classical Sanskrit is derived. See Professor Wackernagel's *Altindische Grammatik*, p. XX.

but also Gaudā is a further development of it. These three are all representatives of the old Eastern form of speech. East of Māgadha, lay the Gaudā or Prāchya Apabhramśa, the head-quarters of which were at Gaur, in the present district of Malda. It spread to the south and south-east, and here became the parent of modern Bengali. Besides spreading southwards, Gaudā Apabhramśa also spread to the east keeping north of the Ganges, and is there represented at the present day by Northern Bengali and, in the valley of Assam, by Assamese. Northern Bengal and Assam did not get their language from Bengal proper, but directly from the west. Māgadha Apabhramśa, in fact, may be considered as spreading out eastwards and southwards in three directions. To the north-east it developed into Northern Bengali and Assamese, to the south into Oṛiyā, and between the two into Bengali. Each of these three descendants is equally directly connected with the common immediate parent, and hence we find Northern Bengali agreeing in some respects rather with the Oṛiyā spoken far away to the south than with the Bengali of Bengal proper, of which it is usually classed as a subordinate dialect.

We have now concluded our survey of those Apabhramśa dialects which belong to what I have called the Outer Indo-Aryan languages. Between the eastern and the western Prakrits there was, as already stated, an intermediate Prakrit called Ardhamāgadhi. The modern representative of the corresponding Apabhramśa is Eastern Hindī, spoken in Oudh, Baghelkhand and the Chhattisgarh country. The eastern limit of Eastern Hindī may roughly be taken as the meridian of Benares, and, to the west, it passes a short way beyond Allahabad, its furthest point being in the district of Banda.

As regards the Inner languages, the principal Apabhramśa is that which has been preserved to us in a literary form. This was known as Nāgara Apabhramśa, and, as its name suggests, it was the Apabhramśa of Gujarāt, and the neighbouring countries, where the Nāgara Brāhmins still form an important part of the community. In various dialects,—and it certainly had local variations,—it must, if we are to accept the evidence of the modern vernaculars, have extended over the whole of western India north of the Deccan, excepting the extreme north-west. Amongst them was the Śaurasēna Apabhramśa of the middle Dōāb¹, which was the parent of Western Hindī.

Closely connected with it were the Tākka Apabhramśa of the North-Central Panjab and the Upanāgara Apabhramśa, probably of the Southern Panjab, which were the parents of the various dialects of Pañjābī. Another dialect of this Apabhramśa, the Āvantya, whose head-quarters were in the country round the modern Ujjain, was the parent of Rājasthānī, and yet another, Gaurjara, of the modern Gujarātī. Both these last were certainly very closely related to the standard Nāgara Apabhramśa dialect.

There remain the modern languages of the Northern Group. These are spoken in the Himalaya from the Eastern Panjab to Nepal, and we know of no Prakrits or

¹ It is not quite certain that the Śaurasēnī Prakrit (distinguished from the Śaurasēna Apabhramśa), as it has been preserved to us in literature, really represents a language founded on an early vernacular of the Dōāb. It may be an artificial literary production founded on the general linguistic peculiarities of a much wider area of Western India than this comparatively small tract. One thing is certain, that the literary Śaurasēnī had peculiarities (e.g. the form of the future tense) which do not, at the present day, appear in the language of the Gangetic Dōāb, but which do appear in Gujarātī. There are, however, explanations of this fact which it is not necessary to give here. On the other hand, Śaurasēnī Prakrit more nearly approaches Sanskrit in its vocabulary than any of the other Prakrits. It has fewer of those so-called 'Dēśya' words which are to be explained as descended from dialects of Old Sanskrit, different from that dialect on which Classical Sanskrit is mainly based. This is entirely consonant with the fact that, according to tradition, that dialect was the one which, in Vedic times, and later, was spoken on the banks of the Sarasvatī and in the Upper and Middle Dōāb. Even the Greeks recognized Muttra (Mathurā), the chief town of Śaurasēna as Μόδουρα ἡ τῶν Θεῶν.

Apabhramśas peculiar to this tract. The basis of the population of most of it is Tibeto-Burman, but has been in later times largely mixed with Aryan elements. North of the Panjab, the Tākka Apabhramśa no doubt influenced the language. Then there were incursions of Khasās and other tribes speaking languages of Dardic origin, and of Gurjaras from Central Asia, also probably bringing an Aryan form of speech. Finally there were immigrants from Rājputānā, whose language mingled with that of their predecessors, and on the whole prevailed. The languages of this group therefore possess a very mixed character, though their most prominent features recall features closely connected with those of the forms of speech found in Rajputana. We may therefore say that, on the whole, they can be referred to Āvantya Apabhramśa as their most important progenitor.

Concurrent with this long development of the modern vernaculars, we have the Classical Sanskrit. Classical Sanskrit, also derived from one of the Primary Prakrit dialects, but fixed in its existing form by the labours of grammarians—that may be said to have culminated in the work of the famous Pāṇini in about the fourth century B.C. This sacred language, jealously preserved by the Brāhmins in their schools, had all the prestige that religion and learning could give it. It borrowed freely from the Secondary Prakrits, and they in turn borrowed freely from it, and, as at the present day, the more highly educated Prakrit-speaking population freely interlarded their conversation with Sanskrit words. These words, once borrowed, suffered a fate similar to that of the ancient Primary Prakrit words which came down to them by direct descent. They became distorted in the mouths of the speakers, and finally became Prakrit in form, though not by right of origin.

These borrowed words were called *Tatsamas* or 'The same as "that" (*i.e.* Sanskrit)', while the original Prakrit words, which had come by direct descent from the Primary Prakrit were called *Tadbhavas* or 'Having "that" (*i.e.* Sanskrit, or more correctly the Primary Prakrit, from one of the dialects of which Classical Sanskrit was descended) for its origin'. To these may be added a third class, the *Tatsamas* which had become distorted in the mouths of the Prakrit-speaking population, but which were still unmistakably borrowed words. These are usually known to European scholars as *semi-Tatsamas*. It is evident that, in the natural course of events, the tendency must have been for all *Tatsamas* to become *semi-Tatsamas*, and for the latter ultimately to become so degraded as to be indistinguishable

from *Tadbhavas*. Another class of words is also to be mentioned, the so-called '*Dēśya*', or 'Local', words of the Indian grammarians. It included all words which the grammarians were unable to refer to Classical Sanskrit as their origin. Many such words were included in this group simply through the ignorance of the writers who catalogued them. Modern scholars can refer most of these to Sanskrit like any other *Tadbhavas*. A few others are words borrowed from Muṇḍā or Dravidian languages. The great majority are, however, words derived from dialects of the Primary Prakrit which were not that from which Classical Sanskrit has descended. They are thus true *Tadbhavas*, although not in the sense given to that word by Indian grammarians, in whose philosophy the existence of such ancient dialects was not dreamed of. These *Dēśya* words were local dialectic forms, and, as might be expected, are found most commonly in literary works hailing from countries like

Gujarat, far away from the natural home of Classical Sanskrit, the Madhyadēśa. For our purpose they may be considered as identical with Tadbhavas.

We find an exactly similar state of affairs in the modern Indo-Aryan languages.

Tatsamas and Tadbhavas in the modern vernaculars.

Omitting foreign words (such as those borrowed from Muṇḍā or Dravidian languages, from Arabic, Persian, or English), their vocabularies may each be divided into the three classes, Tatsamas, semi-Tatsamas, and Tadbhavas. The last class consists of words which the modern vernaculars have received by descent from the Primary Prakrits, or from Classical Sanskrit through the Secondary Prakrits. From the point of view of the present day, their ultimate origin is immaterial. In the stage of the Secondary Prakrits, they may have been Tadbhavas or Tatsamas, but the fact that they have come down to us through that stage is sufficient to make them all Tadbhavas in the stage of the Tertiary Prakrits. On the other hand, the Tatsamas and semi-Tatsamas of the present day are loan-words, borrowed in modern times by the modern vernaculars (not by their Secondary Prakrit progenitors) from Sanskrit. To take examples, the modern vernacular word *ājñā*, 'a command', is a Tatsama loan-word borrowed direct from Classical Sanskrit. Its semi-Tatsama form, which we meet in some languages, is *āgyā*, and one of its Tadbhava forms is the Hindī *ān*, derived from the Secondary Prakrit *aṇṇā*. So also, *rājā*, 'a king', is a Tatsama, and *rāy* or *rāo* is the corresponding Tadbhava. Of course complete triplets or pairs of every word are not in use. Frequently only a Tatsama or a Tadbhava occurs by itself. Sometimes we even find the Tatsama and the Tadbhava forms of a word both in use, but each with a different meaning. Thus, there is a Classical Sanskrit word *vaṁśa*, which means both 'family' and 'bamboo', and connected with it we find in Hindī the Semi-Tatsama *bans*, meaning 'family' and the Tadbhava *bās*, meaning 'a bamboo'¹.

We thus see that for many hundred years Classical Sanskrit has been exercising, and is still exercising, a potent influence on the vocabularies of the modern vernaculars. It is only on the vocabularies that its influence has been directly felt. Their grammars show few traces of it. These have continued steadily in the course of their development since Vedic times. The influence of Sanskrit may have retarded this development, and probably did so in some cases, but it never stopped it, and not one single Sanskrit grammatical form has been added to the living grammars of these languages in the way that Sanskrit words have been added to their vocabularies. Nay, more, all these borrowed Tatsamas are treated by the vernaculars exactly as other borrowed foreign words are treated, and very rarely change their forms in the processes of grammatical accident. For instance, in Hindōstānī, *ghōṛā*, a horse, has an oblique form *ghōṛē* because it is a Tadbhava, but *rājā*, a king, does not change in the oblique cases, because, and only because, it is a Tatsama. Now in all the modern vernaculars the verb must change its form in the process of conjugation, while nouns are not necessarily changed in the course of declension. Hence Tatsamas are as a rule never treated as verbs. If it is

¹ Tatsamas and Tadbhavas occur also in European languages. Thus, 'lapsus' in 'lapsus calami' is a Tatsama, and 'lapse' is a semi-Tatsama, both meaning literally 'a falling', while 'lap' is the Tadbhava form of the same word, with the different meaning of 'the hanging part of a garment'. Similarly 'fragile' and 'redemption' are semi-Tatsamas, while 'frail' and 'ransom' are the corresponding Tadbhavas, and the French 'cause' is a semi-Tatsama corresponding to the Latin 'causa' while the Tadbhava form is 'chose'.

found necessary to do so, it must be done with the help of another Tadbhava verb. For instance, the word *darśan*, seeing, is a Tatsama, and if we wish to use it in the phrase 'he sees', we cannot say *darśanē*, but must employ the periphrasis *darśan karē*, he does seeing. On the other hand, in all the modern vernaculars nouns need not be declined synthetically. Borrowed nouns can always be declined analytically. Hence Tatsama nouns (which are necessarily declined analytically) are common, and, in the high literary styles of all the vernaculars, very common. Thus, although there are sporadic exceptions to the broad rule, it may be laid down as a universal law that Indo-Aryan Vernacular nouns may be either Tatsamas (including semi-Tatsamas) or Tadbhavas, but that Indo-Aryan Vernacular verbs *must* be Tadbhavas.

During the last century, the introduction of printing and the spread of education have, in the case of some languages, induced a fashion of using Tatsamas with which the wildest Johnsonese may almost be compared as a specimen of Saxon English. It has been shown by actual counting that in a Bengali work written in the early part of the nineteenth century eighty-eight per cent. of the words used were pure Sanskrit, every one of which was unnecessary and could have been represented by a vocable of pure home growth. In such cases the result has been most lamentable. The language has been split up into two sections,—the tongue which is understood of the people, and the literary dialect, known only through the press and not intelligible to those who do not know Sanskrit¹. Literature has thus been divorced from the great mass of the population, and to the literary classes this is a matter of small moment, for 'this people, who knoweth not the law, are cursed.' As Sir Athelstane Baines said in the Census Report for 1891, the Sanskritized form of literary Bengali is the product of what may be called the revival of learning in Eastern India consequent on the settlement of the British on the Hooghly. The vernacular was then found rude and meagre, or rather was wrongly considered to be such, owing to the absence of diffused scholarship and the general neglect of the country during Mughul rule. Instead of strengthening the web from the same material, every effort was made in Calcutta, then the only seat of instruction, to embroider upon the feeble old frame a grotesque and elaborate pattern in Sanskrit, and to pilfer from that tongue whatever in the way of vocabulary and construction the learned considered necessary to satisfy the increasing demands of modern intercourse. He who trusts to the charity of others, says Swift, will always be poor; so Bengali, as a vernacular, has been stunted in its growth by this process of cramming with a class of food it is unable to assimilate. The simile used by Beames is a good one. He likens Bengali to an overgrown child tied to its mother's apron-string, and always looking to her for help, when it ought to be supporting itself. Happily, of late years, some of the most influential Bengali writers have shown signs of recognizing this weakness of their language, and many works written during the last quarter of a century avoid the luxuriance of learned Sanskritisms which had hitherto choked it. This is a hopeful augury, but still much remains to be done. Although Bengali still displays the greatest weakness in this

¹And don't confound the language of the nation.
With long-tailed words in *osity* and *ation*.

J. H. Frere, *The Monks and the Giants*.

The newly appointed minister to a Scotch parish had made a round of visits to his people. "He's a rare fine, edicated man, the new meenister", said an enthusiastic wife. "Ay, he's a' that", returned the husband. "Ye dinna ken the meaning o' the hauf o' the words he uses".—*St. James's Gazette*.

respect, and cannot hope to develop a vigorous literature racy of the soil until some great genius rises and sweeps away the enchantment under which it labours, other Indian vernaculars, especially Hindi, show signs of falling under the same malignant spell. The centre of Hindi literature is nowadays Benares, and Benares is in the hands of the Sanskritists. There is no necessity, as may possibly have existed in the case of Bengali, for Hindi to have recourse to the classical tongue. In themselves, without any extraneous help whatever, the dialects from which it is sprung are, and for five hundred years have been, capable of expressing with crystal clearness any idea that the mind of man can conceive. It has an enormous native vocabulary, and a complete apparatus for the expression of abstract terms. Its old literature contains some of the highest flights of poetry and some of the most eloquent expressions of religious emotion which have found their birth in Asia. Treatises on philosophy and rhetoric are found in it, in which the subject is handled with all the subtilty of the great Sanskrit writers, and this with the use of hardly a Sanskrit word that is not a technical term sanctioned by centuries of employment in the schools. Yet, in spite of Hindi possessing such a vocabulary and a power of expression not inferior to that of English, it has become the fashion of late years to write books, not to be read by the millions of Upper India, but to display the author's learning to a comparatively small circle of Sanskrit-knowing scholars. Even when two learned men converse, they use one language, and when either of them writes to the other he uses another. As one of the best of the writers of the latter part of the last century,—himself a most learned professor of Benares, but nevertheless a strong opponent of this excessive Sanskritization,—said in one of the best known and most criticized of his works, 'when a Hindi writer takes his pen in his hand, he ceases to be sober, and becomes Sanskrit-drunk.' Unfortunately, the most powerful English influence was for long on the side of the Sanskritists. This Sanskritized Hindi has been largely used by missionaries, and up to a few years ago all translations of the Bible were made into it. The few Indian writers who, like the professor just quoted, have stood up on the side of Hindi pure and undefiled have had small success in the face of so potent an example of misguided efforts. Arguments may be brought forward in favour of using Classical Sanskrit words for expressing technical terms in science and art, and I am willing to admit their force. I am not one of those who (to quote a well-known example) prefer 'the unthoroughness of stuff' to 'the impenetrability of matter,' but there the borrowing from the parent language should stop. There is still time to save Hindi from the fate of Bengali, if only a lead is taken by writers of acknowledged repute, and much can be done, and, I rejoice, is being done, by the use of a wide discretion on the part of the educational authorities of the provinces immediately concerned.

The Aryans who entered India from the north-west were at an early stage brought into contact with Dravidian tribes. The new-comers inter-
Influence of Dravidian languages. married with them and adopted many of their gods and many of their customs. In the matter of language they borrowed a portion of their vocabulary. Half a century ago it was generally considered that these borrowings were large. Then the pendulum swung to the opposite extreme, and it was vigorously maintained that there were hardly any at all. My own opinion is that the borrowings have been much more considerable than has been admitted by many scholars of late years, but that they were nothing like so universal as was once contended. The discussion has

centred mainly round what are known as the cerebral letters of the alphabet. These letters did not occur in the original Aryan (*i.e.* Indo-Eranian) language, and, in Indo-Aryan languages, came into being on Indian soil. They are common in Dravidian, as well as in Muṇḍā, languages, and in them were certainly not borrowed from Indo-Aryan. The point in discussion was whether the Indo-Aryans borrowed them from the Dravidians or whether they did not. Neither contention was entirely correct. These letters occur with frequency in words of purely Aryan origin. It would be more accurate to say that in many cases the pronunciation of Aryan words became changed under the influence of the example of the surrounding non-Aryan tongues, whose speakers many times exceeded the Indo-Aryans in numbers. Analogy did the rest, save that a certain number of words (such, for instance, as names of things of which the Aryans had no previous experience in their Central Asian home, or words of very common occurrence and in everyday use) were directly borrowed¹. This is borne out by the fact that, where we have reason to believe that Dravidian influence was least strong, the use of these cerebral letters is most fluctuating. Thus, in Assamese, although the distinction is maintained in writing, there is practically no distinction in pronunciation between the dental and the cerebral letters. It is probable, also, that in other cases the Dravidian languages have had an indirect influence on the development of the vernaculars. When there were two or three ways of saying the same thing, the tendency would be to employ the idiom which was most like in sound to an expression meaning the same thing used by the surrounding non-Aryan tribes. Thus, in the Prakrit stage, there were many ways of expressing the dative. One of them consisted in suffixing the Aryan word *kahū* (derived from the Old Sanskrit *krītē*), and it had most chance of surviving, because it resembled the Dravidian dative suffix *ku*, or the old Dravidian suffix from which the modern *ku* is descended. And so, owing to the existence of the suffix *ku*, this Aryan suffix *kahū* did survive to the exclusion of other dative suffixes in some of the Indo-Aryan vernaculars, and now appears in Hindī under the form of the familiar *kō*. Other similar instances of this non-Aryan influence on the Aryan languages of India could easily be quoted. Two will suffice. In the progress of a word through the stage of the Secondary Prakrits, a medial hard consonant first became softened, and then disappeared. Thus the Old Sanskrit *chalati*, 'he goes,' first became *chaladi*, and then *chalaī*. Some of the Secondary Prakrit dialects remained for a much longer period than others in the stage in which the softened consonant is still retained. Nay, this softened consonant has in some cases survived even in the modern vernaculars. Thus the Old Sanskrit *śōka*, 'grief,' is *sōga*, not *sōa*, in Hindī. The occasional retention of this soft medial consonant can be explained by the influence and example of the Dravidian languages, in which it is a characteristic feature. In some Dardic languages, and in some Indo-Aryan languages of the Outer Circle, especially in Kāshmīrī, Sindhī, and Bihārī, a final short *i* or *u* is not dropped, as is usual in the Inner languages, but is, so to speak, only half-pronounced, the mere colour, as it were, of the vowel being given to the final consonant. Thus the Sanskrit *mūrti*, 'an image,' becomes *mūrat* in the Inner Hindī, but is pronounced *mūratī* in the Outer Bihārī. This is also characteristic of Dravidian tongues.

¹ Such borrowed words are often given a contemptuous meaning which they did not originally possess. For instance, there is a Dravidian word *pillai* meaning 'a son.' When borrowed by an Indo-Aryan language the meaning is degraded, and the word becomes *pillā*, a cub. This is just what we should expect under the circumstances.

The influence of Muṇḍā languages on the Indo-Aryan tongues is not so evident.

Influence of Muṇḍā languages.

These languages appear to have been superseded on the Gangetic plain of India by Dravidian before the Aryans had occupied that tract, but a few ancient Muṇḍā, or Austro-Asiatic, words appear in Sanskrit. Such are the names of things like betel, cotton, cotton cloth, or bamboo arrows, which were new to the invaders,¹ or else geographical names taken over by them, such as Kōsala, Tōsala, Kalinga, Trilinga, and several others². At present the Muṇḍā languages are confined to the forest country south of the plain, although, as explained above³, traces of them can be recognized as surviving in the Tibeto-Burman languages of the Central Himalaya as far west as Kanawar in the Panjab. As another Muṇḍā survival in the Indo-Aryan languages we may note the occasional counting by scores. While the Indo-Aryan numeral system is essentially decimal, the word *kōrī*, probably itself a Muṇḍā word, is commonly used for 'score', and the uneducated people of the Ganges Valley use this in the formation of the higher numerals. Thus 'fifty-two' would be expressed by them as 'two-score twelve', *dō kōrī bārah*. This counting by twenties is a Muṇḍā peculiarity. The Muṇḍās were strongest in the eastern portion of the Gangetic plain, and apparently exercised another kind of influence on the eastern dialects of Bihārī. Here the conjugation of the verb is much complicated by changes depending on the number and person of the object. The word, for instance, 'beating' is represented by one form in 'I am beating you', and by another in 'I am beating him'. These changes are Aryan in origin, and have parallels in the languages of north-western India, but the system is that of the Muṇḍā verb⁴.

In vocabulary, the influence of Indo-Chinese languages upon those of the Indo-Aryans has been small. It is apparent only in Assamese and the corrupt Bengali of Eastern Bengal, in which a few Tibetan and Āhom words can be recognized. In Assamese, Tibeto-Burman influence has also been at work to prevent the use of the Dravidian pronunciation of cerebral letters. In the same language, the employment of pronominal suffixes with certain nouns, though undoubtedly of Aryan origin, is probably due to Tibeto-Burman influence. Their use with nouns has been dropped in the neighbouring Aryan languages, but the example of Tibeto-Burman forms of speech (which use prefixes, not suffixes, with the same class of nouns) accounts for their survival in Assamese. I think that another and more widespread example of the influence exercised by Tibeto-Burman languages may also be traced. It is an important point of idiom. In Sanskrit, there were two ways of expressing the past tense. We might either say 'I struck him' or 'he was struck by me', 'I went' or 'I am gone'. In the modern languages only the second, the passive, construction survives. No modern Indo-Aryan language ever says 'I struck him' or 'I went', but all say 'he was struck by me' or 'I am gone'. In Sanskrit there was a third way, which was used only with intransitive verbs. It was an impersonal construction, as in the phrase 'it is gone by me' for 'I went'. This construction could not, in Sanskrit, be employed with transitive verbs, but it is common with them in the modern vernaculars, as in the Hindī sentence, *mai-nē us-kō mārā*; by me,

¹ See Dr. J. Przyluski, in the 'Bulletin de la Société de Linguistique de Paris' XXIV (1924), pp. 255 ff. and XXV (1924), pp. 66 ff.

² See Professor Sylvain Lévi, *Pré-aryen et pré-dravidien dans l'Inde*, in J. A. CCIII (1923), pp. 1 ff.

³ Pp. 35 and 55 ff.

⁴ Compare the remarks on the Muṇḍā verb on p. 37 ante.

with reference to him, striking was done. Now, this impersonal construction is one of the most prominent peculiarities of Tibeto-Burman syntax, and it is possible that the Indo-Aryan tribes borrowed it at a very early period of their migration into India although it was not admitted to the standard speech which developed into Classical Sanskrit.

The Indo-Aryan languages have also been influenced by languages altogether strange to India. Contact with the tongues of foreign nations has affected their vocabularies to varying extents. The one which has had most influence is Persian, not the old Eranian language of pre-Musalmān times (though that has also contributed a small quota), but the Arabized Persian of the Mughul conquerors. Thus, through Persian, the Indo-Aryan vernaculars have also received an important contribution of Arabic, and even some few Turkī, words. The influence of the religion of Islām has opened another door for the entry of Arabic, and a few words have also been imported on the west coast from Arab traders. In the main, however, the Arabic element in all the Indian vernaculars, whether Aryan or not, came in with Persian, and as a part of that language. The pronunciation of the Persian words so imported is that of the Mughul times, and not the effeminate articulation of the Land of the Lion and the Sun at the present day. The extent to which Persian has been assimilated varies greatly according to locality and according to the religion of the speakers. Everywhere there are some few Persian words which have achieved full citizenship and are used by the most ignorant rustic, and we find every variation between this and the Urdū of a highly educated writer of Lucknow, who uses scarcely a single Indo-Aryan word except the verb at the end of his sentence. Under all circumstances, however, it is the vocabulary and but rarely the syntax that is affected. Only in the Urdū of the Musalmāns do we find the Persian order of words in a sentence. There has been no other introduction of Persian construction, nor (except by euphuists) are the Arabic words inflected according to their own rules, being obliged to conform to the grammatical system of their host. So strong is the native instinct against the use of foreign constructions that Hindū writers class a dialect as Urdū,—i.e. the Persianized form of Hindōstānī,—not on the basis of its vocabulary, but on the order of words employed by it. A well-known work was issued in the last century entitled 'Tales in Pure Hindī'. It does not contain a single Persian word from cover to cover, and yet Hindū writers class it as Urdū, because the writer orders his sentences in the Persian fashion. He was a Musalmān, and could not shake off the habit of using idioms which had been taught him by Maulvīs in his schooldays.

Other foreign languages have also contributed to the vocabularies of the Indo-Aryan languages. They are principally Portuguese, Dutch, and English. The influence they have had is small, although some very common words are borrowed from these tongues. The use of the English vocables is growing, mainly owing to their use by employés on the railways, and by soldiers of the Indian army. The influence of a cantonment on language spreads far and wide.

CHAPTER XIII.—INDO-ARYAN LANGUAGES. OUTER SUB-BRANCH.

We now proceed to consider the Indo-Aryan languages in detail, following the Outer Sub-Branch. North-Western Group. order of the list given on p. 120. We begin with the languages of the Outer Sub-branch, and, among them with those belonging to the North-Western Group.

This group may be looked upon as consisting of the Indo-Aryan languages of, roughly speaking, the Indus Valley from Peshawar to the sea, i.e. the Western Panjab and Sindh. From Peshawar it has also spread to the north-east over the district of Hazara and the country to its east. To its north and north-east it is in contact with Dardic languages. On the west it has the Eranian Paṣṭō, and on the south it meets the Arabian Sea. Only on the east is it in contact with other Indo-Aryan languages, and these are, in order from north to south, Pañjābī, the Mārwārī dialect of Rājasthānī, and Gujarātī, all three belonging to the Inner Sub-branch. Dardic languages were once spoken over the whole of this tract, and have left their traces on both Lahndā and Sindhī, but, notwithstanding this infection of Dardic speech, both are clearly Outer languages, and present points of relationship with the Outer languages of Eastern India, which are wanting in Pañjābī and Rājasthānī.¹

The country which corresponded to the Western Panjab of the present day was described in the Mahābhārata as rude and barbarous, and as almost outside the pale of Indo-Aryan civilization. It and the present Sindh included three kingdoms,—the most northern being Gandhāra, with Kēkaya lower down the Indus, and still lower the country of the Sindhus and Sauvīras. In spite of this evil character,—a character no doubt based on religious animosity, for the Western Panjab was from very early times an important centre of Buddhist teaching,—it is certain that Takshaśilā, the capital of Gandhāra, was, so long ago as six centuries before Christ, the home of the greatest university of India. It was at Śālātura, close to this university, that Pāṇini, the most illustrious of Sanskrit grammarians, was born in the fifth or fourth century B. C. In those early days, the land of Kēkaya also was famous for its learning. We are told in the *Chhāndōgya Upanishad* (V. xi) how five great theologians came to a Brāhman with hard questions, which he could not answer for them. He sent them on to Aśvapati, the Kshatriya king of Kēkaya, who, like a second Solomon, solved all their difficulties.

The Western Panjab has always been exposed to conquerors from the north and from the west. According to the usually accepted account, it was through it that the Aryans entered India. The next recorded invasion was that of Darius I of Persia (521-485 B. C.) shortly after the time of the Buddha. According to Herodotus he conquered it and divided it between two satrapies, one of which included Gandhāra (Herodotus iii, 91), while the 'Indians,' i.e. the inhabitants of the Indus Valley, formed by themselves the 20th Satrapy (iii, 94).² Beyond this the authority of Darius did not extend (iii, 101). Herodotus adds (iii, 94) that these 'Indians are more numerous than

¹ For a full discussion on this point, see *Bulletin of the School of Oriental Studies*, Vol. I, Part iii, pp. 78ff.

² See also Rawlinson's note to his translation of Herodotus iii, 98.

any other nation with which we are acquainted, and paid a tribute exceeding that of any other people, to wit, 360 talents of gold dust.' Darius had such complete authority over this part of India, or rather over what was to him and to Herodotus 'India,' that he sent a fleet down the Indus to the sea, whence they sailed homewards towards the west. The huge army that his successor Xerxes led (480 B. C.) against Greece contained men from Gandhāra and from the Western Panjab. The latter, according to Herodotus (vii, 65, 66), wore cotton dresses, and carried bows made of cane, and arrows also of cane with iron tips. The mention of cane arrows reminds us of the fact that arrows made of bamboo (to which Herodotus probably refers) were novelties to the Aryans who invaded India, and that they had to borrow the Austro-Asiatic name for them (see p. 132).

The invasion of Alexander the Great (327-325 B. C.) was confined to the Western Panjab and Sindh. In 305 B. C. Seleucus Nicator invaded India, and after crossing the Indus made a treaty of peace with the famous Chandragupta. In the second century B. C. two Greek dynasties from Bactria founded kingdoms in the Western Panjab. One, that founded by Euthydemus, ended about 156 B. C., and the other, that of Eucratides, about 20 B. C. After them, at various times, other nationalities, Scythians, Parthians, Kushanas, and Huns, invaded India through the north-west, and finally, through the same portal, or through Sindh, came the many Musalmān invasions of India, such as that of Maḥmūd of Ghaznī or those of the Mughuls.

The whole Panjab is the meeting ground of two entirely distinct Indo-Aryan languages,—viz., the old Outer language strongly influenced by Dardic, if not actually Dardic, which expanded from the Indus Valley eastwards, and the old Midland language, the parent of modern Western Hindī, which expanded from the Jamna Valley westwards. In the Panjab they overlapped. In the Eastern Panjab, the wave of Dardic with old Lahndā had nearly exhausted itself, and the old Western Hindī had the mastery, the resulting language being the modern Pañjābī. In the Western Panjab, the old Western Hindī wave had nearly exhausted itself, and the old Lahndā had the mastery, the resulting language being the modern Lahndā. The latter language is therefore in the main an Outer language, strongly influenced by Dardic, but bearing traces of the old Western Hindī. Such traces are much more numerous, and of much greater importance, in Pañjābī. Lahndā may almost be described as a Dardic language infected by Western Hindī, while Pañjābī is a form of Western Hindī infected by Dardic. This linguistic condition leads us to the conclusion that a mixed language, mainly Outer, but partly Dardic, once extended over the whole Panjab, and that the inhabitants of the Midland, through pressure of population or for some other reason, gradually took possession of the Panjab, and partly imposed their own language on the inhabitants. In no other way can the nature of the mixed language of the Eastern Panjab be explained. One result of this mixture is that it is quite impossible to mark any definite boundary-line between Pañjābī and Lahndā, and if, for convenience sake, we take the degree of 74° East longitude as an approximate conventional frontier, it is to be clearly understood that much that is very like Lahndā will be found to its east, and much that is very like Pañjābī to its west.

Sindhi, on the contrary, has much more nearly retained its original character of a language mainly Outer, but partly Dardic. To its east it has Rājasthānī, not Pañjābī, but it is protected from invasion from the east by the physical obstacle of the desert of

Western Rajputana. While modern Lahndā merges imperceptibly into Pañjābī, Sindhī does not merge into Rājasthānī, but remains quite distinct from it. Such border dialects as exist are mere mechanical mixtures, not stages in gradual linguistic change.

Although from very early times the area in which the North-Western Group of Indo-Aryan languages is spoken has been frequently subjected to foreign influence, it is extraordinary how little this mixed Dardic-cum-Outer form of speech has been influenced by it, except that, under Musalmān domination, the vocabulary has become largely infused with Persian (including Arabic) words. In the true Dardic languages a few Greek words have survived to the present day, but I have not met any such either in Lahndā or Sindhī.

Little is known about the linguistic ancestry of these languages. The immediate predecessor of Sindhī was an Apabhraṃśa Prakrit named Vrāchaḍa, regarding which the Indian grammarian Mārkaṇḍeya gives us a few particulars. He moreover mentions a Vrāchaḍa Paśāchī apparently spoken in the same locality, and lays stress on the fact that the Kēkaya Paśāchī is the principal form of that Prakrit. We have seen (p. 109) that Paśāchī was the language of the ancestors of the modern Dards, so that the fact of the existence of a Dardic influence on the languages of the North-Western Group is borne out by this evidence that Paśāchī was once spoken in this same tract. We have no evidence as to the particular form of Apabhraṃśa spoken in the Lahndā area, except that Mārkaṇḍeya tells us that people who employed literary Apabhraṃśa in that locality, —the ancient Gandhāra and Kēkaya,—were fond of using a word twice over in order to indicate repetition or continuance. But in Gandhāra there were two famous rock inscriptions of the Indian Emperor Aśoka (*circa* 250 B.C.) at Shāhbāzgarhī and Mansehrā which were couched in what was then the official language of the country. This was a dialectic form of Pāli, distinguished by possessing many phonetic peculiarities that are still observable in the Dardic languages and in Lahndā and Sindhī.¹

Lahndā is the name of the language of the Western Panjab. As explained above, there is no distinct boundary between it and Pañjābī, which, even more than elsewhere in India, insensibly merge into each other, 74° East longitude being taken as the conventional boundary-line. It is spoken by seven millions of people, or about the same as the population of Austria. Lahndā is known by several other names, such as Western Pañjābī, Jaṭkī, Uchchī, and Hindkī. The word 'Lahndā' itself means '(sun)-setting', and hence 'the west'.² 'Western Pañjābī' has the disadvantage of suggesting that Lahndā is a dialect of Pañjābī, whereas it is nothing of the sort. Moreover it leads us into difficulties when we wish to speak of 'North-western Western Pañjābī' and similarly named dialects. 'Jaṭkī' means the language of the Jaṭṭ tribe, which is numerous in the central part of the Lahndā tract; but Lahndā is spoken by millions of people who are not Jaṭṭs, and millions of Jaṭṭs of the Eastern Panjab do not speak Lahndā. 'Uchchī', the language of the town of Uchch (Uch or Ooch of the maps), is really another name for the Mūltānī dialect of Lahndā. 'Hindkī' or 'Hindko', the language of the Hindūs (*i.e.*, non-Paṭhāns), is the name given

¹See J.R.A.S., 1904, p. 725.

²Note that, in this meaning, the word is a substantive, not an adjective, and that hence we cannot use a feminine form *Lahndī*, as some writers contend. The word for 'western' is not *lahndā*, but is *lēhndōchar* or *qilāhī*. We must take *Lahndā* here as a purely English word,—merely a conventional abbreviation of the phrase *Lahndē-dī bōlī*, or 'the language of the West', spoken from the point of view of the Eastern Panjab.

to Lahndā in the west of the Lahndā tract, in which Musalmān Paṣhtō-speaking Pathāns also dwell.

The number of dialects of Lahndā is very great. Some twenty-two are described, under various names, in the Survey. They fall into two main groups, a southern and a northern, the dividing line being the southern face of the Salt Range. As for the southern group, we must first mention a number of dialects spoken, south of the Salt Range, in the Rechna and Jech Dōābs, *i.e.*, in the Districts of Shahpur, Jhang, Gujran-

Lahndā Dialects.		Survey.
Standard	.	1,507,827
Mūltānī	.	2,176,983
Khētrānī and Jāfirī	.	14,581
Thālī	.	759,210
North-Western	.	881,425
North-Eastern	.	1,752,755
Total	.	7,092,781

Mūltānī.

Hindkī.

Bahāwalpurī.

Sirāikī Hindkī.

Sindhī, and presents several points of similarity with the latter language. Returning north, in the northern half of the Sind Sagar Dōāb, and in the adjacent parts of the District of Dera Ismail Khan, there is Thālī, or dialect of the Thal, or Desert. It approaches the standard dialect of

Shahpur, but differs in pronunciation, and has several points of connexion with the Dardic languages. Finally, there are two mixed dialects spoken by the Khētrāns and Jāfirs beyond the frontier in the Laghārī and Sulaiman Hills. Khētrānī and Jāfirī are both very similar to the Lahndā of Dera Ghazi Khan, but exhibit many interesting Dardic peculiarities. As may be expected from their geographical position, they both borrow from Balōchī.

The dialects of the Salt Range and beyond it on the north fall into two sub-groups, a north-western and a north-eastern. These differ not only in vocabulary, but also in grammar. In the latter respect, the most typical point of difference is in the postposition of the genitive. In the north-west, this is *dā*, as in Pañjābī, and in the north-east, it is *nā*, which connects us with Dardic. The north-western sub-group runs from the centre of the Salt Range nearly due north through the districts of Jhelum, Attock, and

Hindkō.

It covers the rest of the Salt Range, not only the eastern end, but also the western end, where it is the dialect of the important tribe of the Awāns and crosses the Indus into Kohat, where, as in Hazara, it is called Hindkō. To the north-east it appears as Pōthwārī (423,802 speakers in 1921), and under this name covers

Awānki.

Hindkō.

Pōthwārī.

the District of Rawalpindi and parts of Jhelum and Gujrat. In the Murree Hills and in parts of Hazara it is also spoken with dialectic variations, and finally it is the language of the submontane tract south of Kashmir, where it is the tongue of the Chibh and other tribes and of the State of Punch.

Chibhālī
Punchhī.

Lahndā differs widely from the better known Pañjābī in vocabulary, more nearly approaching Sindhī in this respect. Some of its words are also found in Kāshmīrī,—a Dardic language,—and it contains even words once used in that form of speech but now no longer current. It is in its grammatical forms that the most characteristic differences from Pañjābī are exhibited. Lahndā has a true future, of which the characteristic letter is *s*, and a true passive formed by suffixing *z*, the former of which is strange to, and the latter of which is rare in, the speech of the central Panjab. It also employs pronominal suffixes with all the freedom of Sindhī and of the Dardic languages, and has many postpositions which do not occur in Pañjābī. The northern dialects are harsher and more nasal than the southern, and possess characteristic features of their own. Amongst them may be mentioned the use, as already stated, of the postposition *nā* instead of *dā* to form the genitive, the employment of an oblique form in the case of nouns ending in consonants, and the formation of the present participle.

Beyond ballads and other folksongs Lahndā has no literature. The majority of its speakers being Musalmāns, the Persian character is generally employed for writing it. Some Hindūs employ a character common over the Panjab and Sindh called *Lanḍā*¹, or 'clipped.' This is a most imperfect means of writing. It has only two or three characters for the initial vowels, and none for the non-initial. The consonants, too, are far from clear and the script varies from place to place. It is seldom legible to anyone but the writer, and not always to him. In 1819 Carey published an edition of the New Testament in this character, in the dialect of the country round Uchch. He called this dialect the Uchchī language.

Sindhī is the language of Sindh, the country on each side of the River Indus, beginning about latitude 29° N. and stretching thence down to the sea. In the north it merges into Lahndā, to which it is closely related, and which, in the Sirāikī Hindkī dialect, is also spoken all over Sindh by scattered communities from the Western Panjab. It is spoken by three and a quarter millions of people or a little more than the population of Denmark. Sindhī has six recognized dialects, Vichōlī, Sirāikī, Lāsī, Lārī, Tharēlī, and Kachchhī. The first is spoken in Central Sindh. It is the standard dialect, and that employed in literature. Sirāikī is merely a variety of Vichōlī and is no real dialect. The only difference consists in its pronunciation being more clearly articulated and in slight variations in its vocabulary, and it is frequently confused with the allied

Sindhī.		Survey.
Sindhī.		
Vichōlī	.	1,375,686
Sirāikī	.	1,112,926
Tharēlī	.	204,749
Lāsī	.	42,613
Lārī	.	40,000
Kachchhī	.	491,214
Unspecified	.	7,031
Total		3,274,219
Vichōlī.		
Sirāikī.		

¹ The word has nothing to do with the word *Lahndā*, which, as we have seen, means 'West.'

Sirāikī Hindkī spoken in the same country. In Sindhī, the word *Sirō* means the 'head' of anything, and *Sirāikī* hence comes to mean 'up-stream' or 'northern,' from the point of view of the *Lār*ⁿ, or lower Sindh. Sirāikī is considered by Sindhīs to be the purest form of the language, or, as the proverb says, 'a learned man of the *Lār*ⁿ is an ox in the *Sirō*.' It must be remembered that, as the name of a locality, 'the *Sirō*' or 'the up-stream country' is a relative term, and that its meaning varies with the locality of the speaker. The lower down the Indus a man lives, the larger the extent of the *Sirō*, and from the point of view of an inhabitant of the *Lār*ⁿ, the term practically includes

Lāsī.

the Vichōlō, or Central Sindh. Lāsī is the form of Sindhī spoken in the State of Las Bela. It is a transition dialect

Lārī.

between Vichōlī and Lārī. The latter is the language of the

*Lār*ⁿ already mentioned, and is considered to be rude and uncouth, but it retains many old forms, and displays one important feature of the Dardic languages—the disaspiration of sonant consonants—which no longer exists in Vichōlī. Tharēlī and Kachchhī are

Tharēlī.

both mixed dialects. The former is spoken by the hunting and outcast tribes of the Tharⁿ, or desert, of Sindh, which

forms the political boundary between that province and the Marwar country. It is a transition form of speech representing Sindhī shading off into Rājasthānī, through a

Kachchhī.

mechanical mixture of the two languages. Kachchhī, on the other hand, is a mixture of Sindhī and Gujarātī, spoken in Cutch.

Sindhī has received very slight literary cultivation, and few books have been written in it. Its proper alphabet is *Laṇḍā*, which, as usual, varies from place to place and is legible with difficulty. The Gurmukhī and Nāgarī alphabets are also employed, but the Persian alphabet, with several additional letters for the sounds peculiar to the language, is the one now in general use.

Literature and written character.

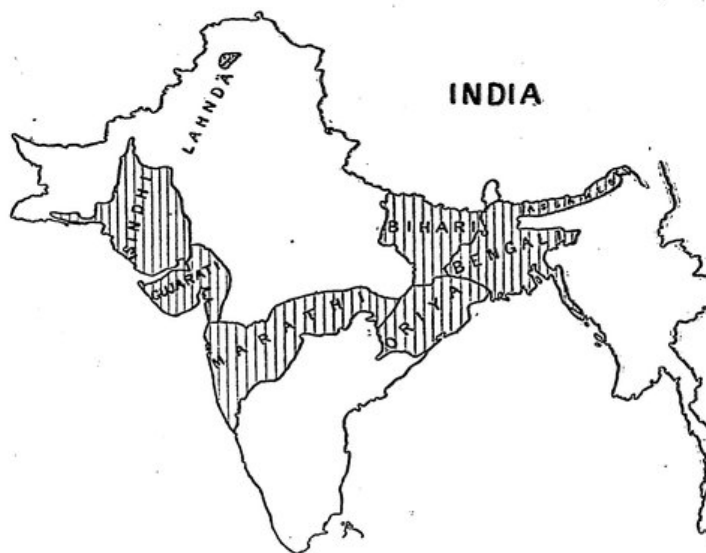
Owing to its isolated position, Sindhī has preserved many phonetic and grammatical peculiarities which have disappeared elsewhere, and is a typical example of the Outer languages. In ancient times

History of Sindhī.

Sindh included the old Vrāchaḍa country, and to the present day the language retains special features which were recorded hundreds of years ago as characteristic of the old Vrāchaḍa Apabhramśa from which it is descended. As already stated, the Hindū grammarians also recorded a Paisāchī dialect as spoken in the Vrāchaḍa country. The Pisāchas, therefore, were once found in the country which is now Sindh, alongside of the people who then spoke Vrāchaḍa Apabhramśa, and whose descendants now speak Sindhī. One typical peculiarity of Paisāchī and of Dardic, its modern representative, is that the letter *t* when it comes between two vowels is not elided, as occurs in all Indo-Aryan languages, but is kept without change. In other Indian Prakrits such a *t* first became *ḍ*, and then disappeared altogether. The same phenomenon is to-day observable, though to a less extent, in Lahndā and Sindhī, and even occasionally in Pañjābī. Pañjābī, as becomes its mixed origin, usually has both forms, that with the *t* and that without. But Lahndā and Sindhī in such cases prefer to keep the *t* intact. Thus, the word for 'sewn' is *sītā* in Lahndā (Sindhī uses another form), but *sītā* or *sīā* in Pañjābī; 'done' is in Lahndā *kītā*, Sindhī *kītō*, but Pañjābī *kītā* or *kariā*; 'drunk' is *pītā* in Lahndā and Pañjābī and

pītō in Sindhī. In a pure inner language, such as Hindī, the *t* would be dropped in all these cases, and we should have *siā*, *kīā*, and *piā*, or some such words.¹

In the Dardic languages, the formation of the past participle of a verb calls for no special attention except in one case. In the Maiyā dialect of Kōhistānī it ends in the letter *l*. Thus the verb *kuṭ-*, strike, has *kuṭ-ag-il* for its past participle. We also find occasional instances of this in Shīnā; but we do not find anything like this in the Inner sub-branch of the Indo-Aryan languages or in Lahndā, though the form reappears in Sindhī. Here the past participle generally ends in *yō*, as in *māryō*, struck, from the verb *mār-an*, to strike. But, when it is desired to emphasize the adjectival force of this participle, the final *ō* is changed to *l*, so that we get such forms as *mār-ya-l*, meaning



||||| Languages in which *l* is the characteristic letter of the past participle.

‘one who is in the condition of having been struck.’ Gujarātī is an Inner language, but, as we shall see, it has been superimposed on another language of the Outer sub-branch, of which traces can still be observed. One of these traces is the existence of this very *l*-participle, which is used in much the same way as in Sindhī, as in *māryō* or *mārē-l*,

¹ It must not be supposed that I suggest that either Lahndā or Sindhī is derived from any Pāisāchī (i.e., Dardic) dialect. From the fact that both an Apabhramśa and a Pāisāchī were spoken in Vṛāchaḍa, we are entitled to maintain that the Pāisāchas were not the same tribe as those who spoke the local Apabhramśa. They were therefore foreigners, and so, by parity of reasoning, were those of Kēkaya. Assuming that the home of the Pāisāchas was somewhere in the country at the foot of the Pāmirs, the natural course for their emigration would have been through the Swat Valley, down the Indus to the Kēkaya and Vṛāchaḍa country. This would be in times when the original inhabitants, whom they found *in situ*, were in so early a stage of linguistic development that they still retained the *t* in words like *pītā* and so forth. The influence of the cognate language of the alien Pāisāchas would account for the speakers of Sindhī and Lahndā not dropping the *t*, when, in the natural course of development, this had occurred farther east. Such influence would have more effect in the direction of conservation than in the direction of innovation, and hence we find few traces of other Pāisāchī peculiarities (such as the change of *d* to *t*) which were strange to the original dialect. I freely admit that much of this is pure theory, but I do not see my way to admitting the correctness of any explanation, other than the influence of some non-Indo-Aryan form of speech, for the retention of the *t* in these languages. Pāisāchī supplies all the requirements of such a tongue, both in its locality and in its phonetic laws. (Since this was written, Dr. P. Tedesco has given a different explanation of the presence of this *t*, in J. A. O. S. XLIII, p. 385ff. See also the present writer in J. R. A. S., 1925, pp. 222ff.)

struck. Further south, in Marāṭhī, still an Outer language, we find this *l*-participle established as the only form of the past participle, as in *mār-ilā*, struck. So also we find this participle in all the remaining Outer languages, as in the Oṛiyā *mārilā*; Bengali *mārila*; Bihārī *māral*; and Assamese *māril*. This *l*-participle, therefore, is not only current over the whole of East-Aryan India, but reaches, through an unbroken chain of dialects, all imperceptibly shading off into each other, across India to the Arabian Sea, and thence northwards through Gujarātī and Sindhī, but leaping across Lahndā, into the Dardic country of the Indus Kōhistān. This is illustrative of the intimate relationship which exists among all these Outer forms of speech, and, although Assamese differs widely from Marāṭhī, and a speaker of one would be entirely unintelligible to the other, a man could almost walk for twenty-eight hundred miles, from Dibrugarh to Bombay and thence to Dardistan, without being able to point to a single stage where he had passed from one language to another. Yet he would have passed through eight distinct tongues of the Indian Continent, Assamese, Bengali, Oṛiyā, Marāṭhī, Gujarātī, Sindhī, Lahndā, and Kōhistānī, and through many dialects.

To the south-east, Sindhī merges into Gujarātī, through its Kachchhī dialect.

(Kachchhī).

(Gujarātī).

Gujarātī will be dealt with later on amongst the inner languages. As we now have it Gujarātī is a member of the Inner Sub-branch, although, like Pañjābī, it occupies territory once held by some member of the Outer Sub-branch. Leaving, therefore, Gujarātī for the present we go on further south along the west coast of the Indian Peninsula, and, about a hundred miles north of Bombay, near the Portuguese settlement of Daman, come to Marāṭhī.

Marāṭhī, in its various dialects, extends nearly across the Peninsula of India.

	Survey	Census of 1921.
Marāṭhī	18,011,948	18,797,831

It is spoken by nineteen millions of people, or two millions less than the population of Spain. In the Bombay Presidency it covers

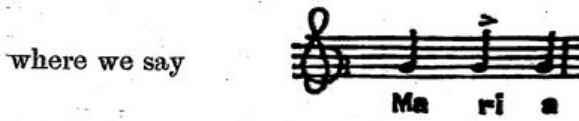
the north of the Deccan Plateau and a strip of country between the Ghāts and the Arabian Sea, extending to about a hundred miles south of Goa. It is also the language of most of Berar and of a good portion of the north-west of His Exalted Highness the Nizam's dominions. It stretches across the south of the Central Provinces (except in a few localities in the extreme south, where the language is the Dravidian Telugu), and occupies also a great part of the State of Bastar. Here it merges into Oṛiyā through the Bhatrī dialect of that language. It has to its north, in order from west to east, Gujarātī, Rājasthānī, Western Hindī, and Eastern Hindī. The first three are languages of the Inner Sub-branch, and Marāṭhī does not merge into them. On the contrary, there is a sharp border-line between the two forms of speech. On the other hand, its most eastern dialect, Hal^abī of Bastar, shows such intimate connexion with the neighbouring Chhattisgarhī dialect of Eastern Hindī, that it is a matter of opinion to which language it belongs.¹ In other words, Marāṭhī merges into Eastern Hindī through its Hal^abī dialect. Further east it gradually shades off into Oṛiyā, which is also a language of the Outer Sub-branch. We have already seen that when, in Sindhī, it is desired to give the past participle of a verb a purely adjectival force the letter *l* is appended to it. In Gujarātī we meet the same form with a more extended, but not universal use.

¹ See the remarks on p. 31 *ante*.

In Marāṭhī, we for the first time find this *l* the only means of indicating past time, no other form being allowed as an option, and this method is henceforth the sole means which we shall find employed through the remaining languages of the Outer Sub-branch.

In one point, Marāṭhī differs from all other Indo-Aryan vernaculars. In the language of Vedic times, each word had a tone, just like those of which we found numerous instances in the Indo-Chinese languages. Each word had its own peculiar phonetic pitch, as distinct from the stress-accent with which we are familiar in English. It is

as if the speakers of Vedic Sanskrit said



Marāṭhī retains many traces of these an-

cient tones, though they are no longer tones, but have been converted into weak stress-accents, much as we say *Maria* nowadays.¹ The other Indo-Aryan languages have all lost every trace of these ancient tones, and have adopted instead an entirely independent system of stress-accents falling, with one or two exceptions, as much as possible on the antepenultimate of each word, much as if we were to say *Māria*.

Marāṭhī has a copious literature of great popularity. The poets wrote in the true vernacular of the country, and used a vocabulary mostly composed of honest Tadbhavas. The result is that the language of the present day is rich in them, and though the scholars for whom the Marāṭhā country is famous have in later times endeavoured with some success to heighten the style of the language by the use of Tatsamas, these parasites have not obtained that complete mastery over the literary form of speech that they have in Bengali. The country was not invaded by the Musalmāns till a comparatively late period, and was more or less successful in repelling the invasion, so that the number of words borrowed from or through Persian is small. As Mr. Beames says, Marāṭhī is one of those languages which may be called playful. It delights in all sorts of jingling formations, and has struck out a larger quantity of secondary and tertiary words, diminutives, and the like, than any of the cognate tongues. Marāṭhī is usually written and printed in the Nāgarī character, a modification of which is known as *mōḍī* or 'twisted,' and invented by Bālājī Avajī, Secretary to the famous Śivajī (1627-80), is used by some for current correspondence.

The earliest Marāṭhī writers whose works have come down to us are Nāmadēva and Dnyānōbā, who flourished at the end of the thirteenth century and drew their inspiration from the early Vaishnava reformers. Śrīdhara (end of sixteenth century) is best known for his paraphrases of the Sanskrit Purāṇas, but the most celebrated of all was Tukārāma or Tukōbā, a contemporary of Śivajī, who wrote in the first half of the seventeenth century. His 'Abhangas,' or loosely constructed hymns in honour of the god Viṭhōbā, are household words in the Marāṭhā country. The most famous successor of Tukārāma was Mōrōpant (A.D. 1720).

¹See Professor Turner, 'The Indo-Germanic Accent in Marāṭhī, in J.K.A.S., 1916, 203ff.' The particular example given by me has been suggested by the example given in Max Müller's Sanskrit Grammar. Some languages, such as Bengali, throw the stress-accent even further back than the antepenultimate.

As in the case of the other vernaculars of India, nearly all the earlier work is in verse, although there are some prose chronicles of varying importance.

No less than thirty-nine names have been recorded in the Survey as those of dialects of Marāṭhī. Few of these can be called genuine dialects, the majority being merely forms of the standard speech or of one of the real dialects, pronounced in some peculiar way according to locality or to the caste of the speakers. For instance, the Marāṭhī of the Konkan north of Ratnagiri is very nearly the same as the standard, but natives recognize two dialects, one spoken by the Brāhmans, and another spoken by Musalmāns. These minute differences are all investigated in the pages of the Survey, but here would be manifestly out of place. It will be sufficient to mention here the four main dialects, *viz.*, Dēśī, Konkan Standard, the Marāṭhī of Berar and the Central Provinces, and Kōṅkaṇī.

Dēśī Marāṭhī is the standard form of the language spoken in its purity round Poona.

Marāṭhī Dialects.	Survey.
Dēśī	6,193,083
Konkan Standard	2,350,817
Dialect of Berar and C. P.	7,677,432
Kōṅkaṇī	1,565,391
Unspecified	225,225
Total	18,011,948

It has travelled far with the Marāṭhā conquerors, and there are large colonies of its speakers in Baroda, which is a Marāṭhā State (although geographically in Gujarat), in Saugor, and in other parts of Central India. Konkan Standard is a variety of Dēśī spoken in the northern

part of the Konkan, from Daman to beyond Ratnagiri. South of it is the true Kōṅkaṇī spoken in the country round Goa, and Konkan Standard is a form of speech intermediate between it and Dēśī. It varies from place to place, and eighteen different sub-dialects of it are described in the Survey.

In the south it more nearly approaches Kōṅkaṇī in such forms as the Bāṅkōṭī (used by Musalmāns) (1,787)¹ and Saṅgamēśvarī (1,332,800), both spoken in the Central Konkan. Further north, the influence of Gujarātī becomes apparent, and the sub-dialect named Par^abhī (160,000) is the form used by nearly the whole Marāṭhī-speaking population of Bombay and Thana, as far north as Daman. As spoken by the important caste of Kuṇ^abī (368,000) it is given their name, and similarly the Kōḷī sub-dialect (189,186) is used by the Kōḷīs of Bombay Town and Island, of Thana, Kolaba, and Janjira.

The Konkan Standard dialect has received a certain amount of literary cultivation, having been employed by the Portuguese missionaries of Salsette, who, in the seventeenth century, wrote a grammar of the dialect as spoken in Thana and an abridged version of the gospels in the same form of speech. The dialect spoken in Berar, Central Provinces, and also in the Nizam's Dominions varies as little from the standard Dēśī as does Konkan Standard. Here the principal difference is a tendency to shorten final vowels, and there are other minor peculiarities which vary from place to place. As we go east, there is a tendency to merge into the cognate Eastern Hindī. The dialect of Berar and the neighbouring parts of the Nizam's Dominions is called Varhāḍī (2,084,023).

¹ These figures for sub-dialects are necessarily those of the Survey only.

Historically, it should represent the purest Marāṭhī, for Berar corresponds to the ancient Vidarbha or Mahārāshṭra; but in after centuries the political centre of gravity moved farther west, and with it the linguistic standard. The River Wardha, which separates the Central Provinces from Berar, may also be taken as the linguistic boundary between Varhādī and the next sub-dialect, Nāgpurī. The former is, however, also found in the District of Betul, in the Central Provinces, while, on the other hand, the Marāṭhī of the Basim District and of the western part of Buldana, both belonging to Berar, is not Varhādī, but more nearly approaches the Dēśī of Poona. The language of the southern

Nāgpurī.

half of the Central Provinces is also Marāṭhī, the local form being called Nāgpurī (1,823,475). It is practically the same as Varhādī, but, as elsewhere, varies according to locality, diverging further from the standard as we go east. In the Saugor District, the Marāṭhī spoken is not Nāgpurī, but is the standard form of the language. This tract of country passed to us from the Peshwa and not from the Nāgpur Rāj, and the Marāṭhī-speaking population came from Poona, not Nagpur. They regard the true Nagpur people with some contempt in consequence. The same is the case with the scattered Marāṭhā families of Damoh and Jabalpur. In the extreme east of the Nāgpurī area, in the District of Balaghat, the dialect has changed so much that it has a separate name, and is called Marhēṭī. In this part of the Central Provinces, the Districts of Balaghat and Bhandara are the eastern outposts of Nāgpurī. Further east we are met by Chhattīsgarhī, which is a dialect of Eastern Hindī. To the south of this area, Marāṭhī covers the north of the District of Chanda (the south is occupied by Telugu), and gradually merges into

Hal'bi.

Hal'bi, also called Bastarī (104,971), was for long nobody's child in the linguistic classification of India. Our Survey shows that it is a corrupt mixture of several languages, both Aryan and Dravidian, forming a transition tongue between Marāṭhī and Oṛiyā, but generally with a Marāṭhī backbone. The Hal'bi of the State of Bastar is considered by Chhattīsgarhī-speakers to be Marāṭhī, and by Marāṭhī-speakers to be Chhattīsgarhī, and this well illustrates its mixed nature. It is spoken in the central part of Bastar, having Telugu to its south. In the north-east corner of Bastar we find a form of speech called Bhatrī. This is the link between Hal'bi and Oṛiyā, and is classed as a dialect of the latter language. It might with almost equal accuracy be described as one of the many forms of Hal'bi. Immediately to its east lies Oṛiyā. We have now brought Marāṭhī across India, from the Arabian Sea to within a couple of hundred miles of the Bay of Bengal. Hitherto attention has naturally been fixed upon the particular dialect of it which is spoken in the Bombay Presidency, and it has usually been classed as the most south-western of the Aryan languages of India. It will have been seen that 'Southern' describes it much more completely.

Returning to the Bombay Presidency, we must consider the one form of Marāṭhī

Kōṅkaṇī.

which is a real dialect, and not merely a corrupt form of the standard form of speech. This is Kōṅkaṇī, spoken in the Konkan, from Malwan in the north to Karwar in the south. It is the language of the Portuguese settlement of Goa, and is widely spoken in the Districts of Belgaum and North and South Kanara and in the State of Sawantwadi. In Goa, it is usually called Goanese. It has several other local names, indicating slight differences of

idiom, which it is not necessary to mention here. As a dialect of Marāṭhī, it branched off from the common parent Prakrit at a relatively early period, so that there are many divergencies from the standard of Poona. Indeed, in some respects, it has preserved an older stage of phonetical development, and shows a greater variety of verbal forms. It has no surviving national literature, the old manuscripts having been destroyed after the Portuguese conquest of Goa as containing pagan doctrines, but a new literature, Christian in character, has sprung up under the care of the Portuguese missionaries. One of these, an Englishman, Thomas Stephens (or Thomaz Estevão) by name, who came to Goa in 1579 and died there in 1619, wrote the first Kōṅkaṇī grammar, and from his hand we also have a poetical paraphrase of the New Testament which is still popular. The old Kōṅkaṇī literature is said to have been written in the Nāgarī character, and this was also used by Carey in his translation of the New Testament. Later on the Kanarese alphabet was introduced, and lastly the Jesuit Fathers of the Christian College at Mangalore have made use of the Roman alphabet in several of their religious books. The modern literature is almost exclusively religious, and is now written in these three characters.

Opportunity may here be taken to mention Singhalese. This, though an Indo-Aryan form of speech, is not dealt with in the Survey, nor is it the language of any part of India proper. It is spoken in Ceylon, especially in the southern half of that island, whither it was imported, apparently with Buddhism, from the western side of India. Its nearest relative in India is Marāṭhī, but the relationship is distant, and there are few obvious traces of the connexion.

Mahl.

A dialect of Singhalese is Mahl, spoken in the Maldivé islands and Minicoy.

The languages of the Eastern Group are Oṛiyā, Bihārī, Bengali, and Assamese. It

Eastern Group.		
	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Oṛiyā . . .	9,042,525	10,143,165
Bihārī . . .	37,180,782	34,342,430 ¹
Bengali . . .	41,933,284	49,294,099
Assamese . . .	1,447,552	1,727,328
Total . . .	89,604,143	95,507,022

Oṛiyā.		
	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Standard . . .	8,352,228	...
Mixed Dialects of the North . . .	582,798	...
Bhatri . . .	17,387	...
Unspecified . . .	90,112	...
Total . . .	9,042,525	10,143,165

thus includes all the Aryan languages of India which, roughly speaking, are in use to the east of the meridian of Benares. Oṛiyā or Utkalī is the Aryan language spoken in Orissa and in the country bordering on that Province. To the north it includes a portion of the District of Midnapore, which, together with a part of Balasore, was the Orissa of the phrase 'Bengal, Bihar, and Orissa' found in the Diwānī grant and in the regulations framed by Government in the last decades of the 18th century. It is also the language of the District of Singhbhum, belonging to the Division of Chota Nagpur, and of several Indian States which fall politically within that Division. On the west it is the language of the greater part of Sambalpur, which has lately been added to the Orissa Division, and of a small portion of the District of Raipur in the Central Provinces, together with the many Native States which lie between these two Districts

¹ In the Census returns, nearly all the speakers of Bihārī are shown as speaking Western Hindi. In the returns, only 7,331 are shown for Bihārī. The figures given above are corrected estimates.

and Orissa proper. On the south it is the language of the north of the District of Ganjam, with its connected Indian States, and of the Jeypore Agency of Vizagapatam. It is thus spoken in four Provinces of British India,—Bihar and Orissa, Bengal, the Central Provinces, and Madras, and covers, say, 82,000 square miles, an area a little less than that of Yugo-Slavia, while the number of its speakers (nine millions) is a little more than that of the combined populations of Norway and Sweden.

It is called Oṛiyā, Ōdri, or Utkalī, that is to say, the language of Ōdra or Utkala, both of which are ancient names for the country known to the English as Orissa. It is sometimes called Uriya, but this name is merely a mis-spelling of the more correct Oṛiyā. The earliest example of the language which is at present known consists of some Oṛiyā words in an inscription of the thirteenth century. An inscription dated a century later contains several sentences which show that the language was then fully developed, and differed little from the modern form of speech either in spelling or in grammar. It is bounded on the north by Bengali, on the north-west by Bihārī, on the west by the Chhattisgarhī dialect of Eastern Hindi, and on the south by Telugu. To the south-west it merges into the Halābi dialect of Marāṭhī through Bhatrī. This is the only true dialect. In the north there are several mixed dialects, half-Oṛiyā and half-Bengali. Of these there are almost as many forms as there are speakers, the two languages being mixed at random according to the personal equation of each. A sentence may begin in Oṛiyā and end in Bengali or *vice versa*, or the two languages may be mixed clause and clause about, but all this does not constitute any definite dialect. Elsewhere Oṛiyā has local varieties of pronunciation and accent, but the standard is in the main closely followed over the whole Oṛiyā-speaking area. Bhatrī is the transition dialect to Marāṭhī, and the only specimens of it that I have seen were written in the Nāgarī (*i.e.*, the Marāṭhī) alphabet, and not in that peculiar to Oṛiyā.

Oṛiyā is handicapped by possessing an exceedingly awkward and cumbrous written character. This character is, in its basis, the same as Nāgarī, but is written by the local scribes with a stylus on a talipot palm leaf. The scratches are themselves legible, but, in order to make them more plain, ink is rubbed over the surface of the leaf and fills up the furrows that form the letters. The palm leaf is excessively fragile, and any scratch in the direction of the grain tends to make it split. As a line of writing on a long narrow leaf is necessarily in the direction of the grain, this peculiarity prohibits the use of the straight top line which is a distinguishing feature of the Nāgarī character. For this the Oṛiyā scribe is compelled to substitute a series of curves, which almost surround each letter. It requires remarkably good eyes to read an Oṛiyā printed book, for the exigencies of the printing-press compel the type to be small, and the greater part of each letter is this curve, which is the same in nearly all, while the real soul of the character, by which one is distinguished from another, is hidden in the centre, and is so minute that it is often difficult to see. At first glance, an Oṛiyā book seems to be all curves, and it takes a second look to notice that there is something inside each.

On the ground that its grammatical structure in some respects closely resembles that of Bengali, Oriyā has more than once been claimed by Calcutta Paṇḍits as a dialect of that language. They are, however, wrong. It is a sister, not a daughter, and the mutual points of resemblance are due to the fact that they have a common origin in the ancient Māgadha Apabhraṃśa. It has the same dearth of forms for expressing number as Bengali, and when the plural has to be expressed it is done, as in that language, by the aid of a noun of multitude. As in all the Eastern languages, the first and second persons singular of the verb are used only by the uneducated, or when respect is not intended. It has one great advantage over Bengali in the fact that, as a rule, it is pronounced as it is spelt. There are few of those slurred consonants and broken vowels which make Bengali so difficult a language for a foreigner to speak correctly. Each letter in each word is clearly sounded, and it has been well described as 'comprehensive and poetical; with a pleasing sound and musical intonation, and by no means difficult to acquire and master.' In Bengali, the stress-accent is thrown back as far as possible, and, to assist this, the succeeding syllables of the word are contracted or slurred over in pronunciation; but in the best Oriyā every syllable is distinctly pronounced, and the accent is put on the penultimate syllable if it is a long one, and never further back than the antepenultimate. The Oriyā verbal system is at once simple and complete. It has a long array of tenses, but the whole is so logically arranged, and built on so regular a model, that its principles are easily impressed upon the memory. It is particularly noticeable for the very complete set of verbal nouns, present, past, and future, which take the place of the incomplete series of infinitive and gerund that we find in Bengali, and for want of which that language is sometimes driven to strange straits in order to embody what seems to us the simplest idea. When a Bengali wishes to express the idea embodied in what in Latin would be called the infinitive, he has to borrow the present participle for the occasion, and then has to employ it for all tenses, so that the word is used, in the first place, not as a participle, and, in the second place, not necessarily in the present tense. Oriyā, on the other hand, simply takes the appropriate verbal noun, and declines it in the case which the meaning necessarily requires. As every infinitive must be some case of some verbal noun, it follows that Oriyā grammar does not know the so-called 'Infinitive Mood' at all. The veriest beginner does not miss it, and instinctively makes up his 'infinitive' or his 'gerund' as he requires it. In this respect Oriyā grammar is in a more complete stage of development than even Classical Sanskrit, and can be compared only with the old Sanskrit of the Vedic times. This archaic character, both of form and of vocabulary, runs through the whole language, and is no doubt accounted for by its geographical position. Orissa has ever been an isolated country bounded on the east by the ocean, and on the west by hilly tracts inhabited by wild aboriginal tribes, and bearing an evil reputation for air and water. On the south, the language is Dravidian, and belongs to an altogether different family, while, on the north, it has seldom had political ties with Bengal.

On the other hand, Orissa has been a conquered country. For eight centuries it was subject to the kings of Telinga, and, in modern times, it was for fifty years under the sway of the Bhōslās of Nagpur, both of whom have left deep impressions of their rule upon the land. On the language they have imposed a number of Telugu and Marāṭhī words and idioms which still

survive. These are, so far as we know, the only foreign elements of importance that have intruded into Oṛiyā. There are also a few Persian words which have come from the Musalmāns and a small vocabulary of English court terms and the like, which English

Literature.

domination has brought into vogue. Oṛiyā has a fairly large literature, mainly composed of religious poetry, that relating to Krishna being most prominent. As a vernacular, it is almost confined to its proper home, though speakers of the language are found in various parts of India, where they are mainly either domestic servants or pālki-bearers.

Bihārī.

The province of Bihar was for centuries much more closely connected politically with the country which is now the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh than with Bengal. Even so long ago as the time of the composition of the Sanskrit epic of the Rāmāyaṇa, Rāma-chandra, the prince of Ayōdhyā (the modern Oudh), is represented as taking his famous bride, Sītā, from the country of Mithilā, or the present North Bihar. The face of the Bihārī is ever turned to the North-West; from Bengal he has experienced only hostile invasions. For these reasons, the language of Bihar has often been considered to be a form of the 'Hindī' said to be spoken in the United Provinces, but really nothing can be further from the fact. In spite of the hostile feelings with which Bihārīs regard everything connected with Bengal, their language is a sister of Bengali, and only a distant cousin of the tongue spoken to its west. Like Bengali and Oṛiyā, it is a direct descendant of the old Māgadha Apabhraṃśa. It occupies the original seat of that language, and still retains nearly all its characteristic features. In one particular of phonetics alone does it depart from its parent, namely in the pronunciation of the sibilants. This is accounted for by the political influence of the North-West. The pronunciation of these letters is a literal shibboleth between Bengal and Central Hindōstān. A man who pronounces his *s*'s as *sh* would at once be known as a Bengali and treated as such. The Bihārīs, therefore, in their desire, which has existed for several centuries, to sever all connexion with the people to the east, have striven after the pronunciation of the *s*'s of the west, and have now acquired it; but that it is a comparatively modern innovation is clearly shown by the fact that, although they pronounce *s*, in the Kaithī national character they always write *sh*, and use the very character that the Hindū grammarians employed to illustrate the *sh*-sound which in their time was so characteristic of the tongue of Magadha.

Where spoken.

Bihārī is not the vernacular of Bihar only, but is also spoken far beyond the limits of that Province. To the west it is spoken in the eastern districts of the United Provinces, and even in a small portion of Oudh. Its western boundary may be taken as roughly the meridian passing through Benares, although it really extends a short distance beyond that city. On the south it is spoken in the two plateaux of Chota Nagpur. It extends from the Himalaya on the North to Singhbhum (an Oṛiyā-speaking district) on the South, and from Manbhum on the South-East to Basti in the North-West. The total area covered by it is about 90,000 square miles, or 3,000 more than that of Yugo-Slavia, and the number of its speakers (thirty-seven millions) is a little less than that of the population of Italy. The linguistic boundaries are Bengali to its East, the Himalayan tongues to its North, Eastern Hindī to its West, and Oṛiyā to its South.

Bihārī has three main dialects: Maithilī, Magahī, and Bhojpurī. Each of these

Dialects.	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Maithilī . . .	10,263,357	...
Magahī . . .	6,504,817	...
Bhojpurī . . .	20,412,608	...
Total . . .	37,180,782	34,342,430 ¹
Maithilī.		

has several sub-dialects. Maithilī or Tirhutīā is spoken over Tirhut, a part of Champaran, eastern Monghyr, Bhagalpur, and western Purnea. It is found in its greatest purity in the District of Darbhanga, and has a small literature going back to the fifteenth century. Vidyāpati Thākur, who

lived about that time, was a Sanskrit writer of some repute, and one of his works, translated into Bengali, was for many years the terror of examinees in the latter language. But it is upon his dainty songs in his own vernacular that his fame chiefly rests. He was the first of the old Master Singers whose short religious poems, dealing principally with Rādhā and Krishna, exercised such potent influence on the faiths of Eastern India. His songs were adopted and enthusiastically recited by the celebrated Hindū reformer Chaitanya (flourished sixteenth century), and, through him, became the house poetry of the Lower Provinces. Numbers of imitators sprang up, many of whom wrote in Vidyāpati's name, so that it is now difficult to separate the genuine from the imitation, especially as in the great collection of these songs which is the accepted authority in Bengal, the former have become altered in the course of generations to suit the Bengali idiom and metre. Vernacular literature has also had several dramatic authors in Darbhanga, the local custom being to write the body of a play in Sanskrit but the songs in Maithilī. There have also been some epic poems, of which at least one has survived in part.

Magahī is spoken in South Bihar and in the Chota Nagpur District of Hazaribagh which covers the northern of the two plateaux of that Province. It does not extend to the southern plateau, of which, as we shall see, the language is a form of Bhojpurī. It has no written literature, but Carey translated the New Testament into it in 1818 and some folktales and songs have been collected and printed. The northern part of the locality in which Magahī is now spoken corresponds to the ancient Magadha, and was therefore the head-quarters of the ancient Māgadha Apabhramśa.

Bhojpurī is properly speaking the language of Bhojpur, the name of a town and pargana in the north-west of the District of Shahabad. It connotes, however, the language spoken over a much wider area. It occupies the whole of West Bihar and of the eastern districts of the United Provinces. It also covers the District of Palamau, and the southern, or Ranchi, plateau of Chota Nagpur. It varies according to locality, the tongue of Azamgarh and Benares differing somewhat from that of Shahabad and Saran, another division of forms being between the Bhojpurī spoken north, and that spoken south, of the Ganges. It has one important sub-dialect, the Nagpurīā of Chota Nagpur, and natives also recognize, by using separate names, the Madhēsī Bhojpuri spoken in Champaran, the Sarwarīā of Basti and the neighbourhood, and the Tharūī, or broken dialect spoken by the hill tribes of the Himalaya, but these are refinements of small importance.

Nagpurīā.
Madhēsī.
Sarwarīā.
Tharūī.

¹ See note to page 145.

The three main sub-dialects are the Standard, the Western, and Nagpuriā. Western Bhojpuri is frequently called 'Pūrbī', or 'the Language of the East' *par excellence*. This is naturally the name given to it by the inhabitants of Western Hindostan, but has the disadvantage of being too indefinite. It is used very loosely, and often includes languages which have nothing to do with Bhojpuri, simply because they are spoken to the 'East' of those who refer to them. Bhojpuri has a very small literature, all written in the last few years. One or two portions of the Scriptures have been translated into it.

These three dialects fall naturally into two groups, namely Maithili and Magahī on the one hand and Bhojpuri on the other. The speakers are also separated by ethnic peculiarities, but Maithili and Magahī and the speakers of these two dialects are much more closely related to each other than either of them is to Bhojpuri. I shall here content myself with noting the most characteristic differences which at once strike the casual observer. In pronunciation Maithili, and to a less degree Magahī, is much rounder than Bhojpuri. In Maithili, the vowel *a* is pronounced with a broad sound approaching the 'o' in *hot* colour that it possesses in Bengali. Bhojpuri, on the contrary, pronounces the vowel with the clear sharpcut tone which we hear all over central Hindostan. On the other hand, it also possesses a long drawled vowel which is sounded like the *aw* in 'awl'. The contrast between these two sounds is so very marked, and is of such frequent occurrence, that in each case it gives a tone to the whole dialect which is recognized at once. In the declension of nouns, Bhojpuri has an oblique form of the genitive case, which is wanting in the other dialects. The polite pronoun of the second person, which is frequently heard in conversation, is *apane* in Maithili and Magahī, but *raure* in Bhojpuri. The verb substantive in Maithili is usually *chhai* or *achh*, he is. In Magahī it is usually *hai*, and in Bhojpuri *bāṭē*, *bāṛē*, or *hāwē*. The three dialects all agree in forming the present tense by adding the verb substantive to the present participle, exactly as in other modern Indian languages; but Magahī has also a special form of the present, *dēkha hai*, exactly equivalent to the English 'he is a-seeing', and so has Bhojpuri another form *dēkhā-lā*, the literal meaning of which is doubtful. The whole system of verbal conjugation is amazingly complex in Maithili and Magahī, but is as simple and straightforward in Bhojpuri as it is in Bengali or Hindī. There are many other minor differences between the three dialects, but the above are those which are most characteristic and striking. Suffice it to say, further, that Maithili and Magahī are dialects of nationalities that have carried conservatism to the excess of uncouthness, while Bhojpuri is the practical language of an energetic race, which is ever ready to accommodate itself to circumstances, and which has made its influence felt all over India.

The last remark brings us to the consideration of the ethnic differences between the speakers of Maithili and Magahī on the one hand, and those who speak Bhojpuri on the other. These are great. Mithilā, a country with an ancient history, traditions of which it retains to the present day, is a land under the spiritual dominion of a sept of Brāhmans extraordinarily scrupulous in regard to the mint, anise, and cummin of the law. For centuries it has been too proud to admit other nationalities to intercourse on equal terms, and has suffered conquest after conquest, from the north, from the east, and from the west, without changing its

ancestral traditions. The story goes that at the marriage of Rāma, the Brāhmins of Mithilā showed the same uncivilized pride characteristic of their descendants in the twentieth century. This Brāhmanical domination has left ineffaceable marks upon the nature of the rest of the population. Mithilā, or Tirhut, is one of the most congested parts of India. The inhabitants increase, and multiply, and impoverish the earth, nor will they seek other means of life than agriculture, or other lands on which to practise the one art with which they are acquainted. Magadha, on the other hand, although it is intimately connected with the early history of Buddhism, was too long a cockpit for contending Musalmān armies, and too long directly subject to the head-quarters of a Musalmān province, to remember its former glories of the Hindū age. A great part of it is wild, barren, and sparsely cultivated, and over much of the remainder cultivation is carried on only with difficulty by the aid of great irrigation works spread widely over the country, and dating from prehistoric times. Its peasantry, oppressed for centuries, and even now, under British rule, poorer than that of any neighbouring part of India, is uneducated and unenterprising. There is an expressive word current in Eastern Hindostan which illustrates the national character. It is '*bhadēs*', and has two meanings. One is 'uncouth', 'boorish', and the other is 'an inhabitant of Magadha.' Which meaning is the original and which the derivative, I do not know; but a whole history is contained in these two syllables.

The Bhojpuri-speaking country is inhabited by a people curiously different from the others who speak Bibārī dialects. They form one of the fighting nations of Hindostan. An alert and active nationality, with few scruples and considerable abilities, dearly loving a fight for fighting's sake, they have spread over Aryan India, each man ready to carve his fortune out of any opportunity that may present itself. They have in former times furnished a rich mine of recruitment to the Hindōstānī army, and, on the other hand, they took a prominent part in the mutiny of 1857. As fond as the Irishman of a stick, the long-boned, stalwart Bhojpuri, with his staff in hand, is a familiar object striding over the fields far from his home. Thousands of them have emigrated to British Colonies and have returned rich men; every year still larger numbers wander over Northern Bengal, and seek employment, either honestly as *pālki*-bearers, or, otherwise, as dacoits. The larger Bengal landholders each keep a posse of these men euphemistically termed '*darwāns*', to hold his tenants in order. Such are the people who speak Bhojpuri, and it can be understood that their language is a handy article, made for current use, and not too much encumbered by grammatical subtilities.

Throughout the Bihārī area, the written character is that known as Kaithī. This script is used over the whole of Hindostan alongside the more complete and elegant Nāgarī. Practically speaking, the former may be looked upon as the current hand of the latter, although epigraphically it is not a corruption of it, as is thought by some. Kaithī is the official character of two widely distant countries, Bihar and Gujarat, and a Tirhut Paṭwārī finds little difficulty in reading a Gujarātī book. The Brāhmins of Tirhut employ a special character of their own, called the Maithilī script. It closely resembles that used for Bengali, but differs from it just enough to make it at first sight rather puzzling to read.

Bengali is the language of the Gangetic Delta, and of the country immediately to its north and east. It is spoken by forty-two millions of people, approximately equivalent to the population of France. North of the Ganges its western boundary may be taken as the River Mahānanda in the east of the District of Purnea. South of the Ganges it reaches up to the foot of the Chota Nagpur plateaux. It covers the greater part of the District of Midnapur, and that tract of Singhbhum which is known as Dhalbhum. To the east, it runs a short way up the Assam Valley, taking in about half the District of Goalpara, and, in the Surma Valley, it covers the whole of Sylhet and Cachar, as well as Mymensingh and Dacca, although here the ground is partly occupied by Tibeto-Burman languages, whose speakers are met with in scattered colonies. Further south, it is spoken in Noakhali and Chittagong, and even in parts of the Hill Tracts of the latter District and of Arakan. To its north it has the Tibeto-Burman languages of the Himalaya, to its west Bihārī, to its south-west Oriyā, and to its east Tibeto-Burman languages and Assamese. On the south it is bounded by the Bay of Bengal. In no other speech of India is the literary tongue so widely divorced from that of ordinary conversation as in Bengali. The two can almost be spoken of as distinct languages, rather than as two dialects of the same language. Up to the last thirty years hardly anything was known about the actual speech of the forty odd millions who were recorded in the census tables as having Bengali for their vernacular. Even European grammarians, most of whom were missionaries and ought to have known better, were the obedient slaves of the Pandits of Calcutta, and illustrated only the artificial book language in their works. Beames was the first, and I believe the only, writer in the concluding decades of the last century to draw attention to the necessity of putting on record what the people really spoke.¹ Since then the Linguistic Survey has succeeded in exploring the Bengali dialects with considerable success, and a band of writers headed by the eminent Rabīndranāth Tagore is creating a taste for a chaster prose style in which the classical Bengali of the last century is skilfully blended with the forms of modern everyday speech.

In dividing this language into dialects, the lines of cleavage may be either horizontal or perpendicular; adopting the former method we get the literary dialect on the one hand, and the true vernacular on the other. The former is practically the same all over Bengal, but is used only in books and newspapers, or when speaking formally. On other occasions, speakers of Bengali sink back into a more or less refined version of the second dialect.

¹ The result of the influence of the old school of Pandits upon Bengali may be illustrated by taking a passage of narrative English, and substituting a Latin word for every noun that occurs. Theoretically the nouns should be in Anglo-Saxon, but, to an Englishman, Latin more nearly holds the position of a learned language that Sanskrit does in India. As an example I give a verse or two of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, with a Latin word (gender and case being usually neglected) substituted wherever the Bengali version employs a Sanskrit one, — 'A certain vir had two filiuses. And the junior filius medio of them said to his pater, "pater give me the pars of the substantia that falleth to me," And he made divisio unto them of his proprius facultas. And not multus dies after the junior filius made omnis substantia collectus and became peregre profectus into a regio longinquus.' In this the Latin words are taken from Beza's translation. No wonder that a Bengali villager starts and stares in the witness box when asked to repeat (and expected to understand) a form of asseveration couched in language analogous to the above. I have known a village woman break into hysterical giggles when asked to repeat the form of asseveration which has, under the orders of the Calcutta High Court, to be tendered to every witness before he or she gives evidence in a judicial proceeding.

Between these two, there is not merely the same difference as that which exists between the language of the educated and that of the uneducated, say, in England. The dissimilarity is much greater. The literary departs from the colloquial dialect, not only in having a highly Sanskritized vocabulary, but also in its grammatical forms. The grammar of literary Bengali is nowhere used in conversation. The colloquial forms are much contracted. Words which, in the literary language, pronounced *ore rotundo*, have four syllables, are in this reduced to two, so that a mere knowledge of the former is of little assistance towards understanding or speaking the latter.

The lines of perpendicular cleavage affect only the colloquial form of Bengali. There are several dialects of this, but the change from one to another is so gradual that

	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Western . . .	18,866,692	...
Eastern . . .	22,730,606	...
Unspecified . . .	335,986	...
TOTAL	41,933,284	49,294,099

Western Bengali.	Survey.
Standard . . .	8,443,996
Western . . .	3,967,641
South-Western . . .	346,502
Northern . . .	6,108,553
TOTAL	18,866,692

Broken Dialects.	Survey.
Khariā-ṭhār . . .	2,298
Pahāriā-ṭhār . . .	462
Mal Pahāriā . . .	27,908
TOTAL	30,668

it is impossible to say where anyone of them begins or ends. We may, however, recognize two main branches, a Western and an Eastern. The Western includes the standard dialect spoken round Calcutta and Hooghly, the curious south-western dialect spoken in central Midnapore, and the Northern Bengali used north of the Ganges, between Purnea and Rangpur. In Western Bengal, there is a Western dialect which has been affected by the neighbouring Bihārī, and we also, in the same locality, find some broken forms of speech employed by the hill tribes. The principal of these is the Māl Pahāriā of the Santal Parganas and Birbhum, which used to be thought to be a Dravidian language, but which the Survey has shown to be a corrupt Bengali.

In Northern Bengal, the Tibeto-Burman Koches have long abandoned their own language, but traces of it are found in the Bengali that they speak, which increase as we go eastwards towards their original home on the Brahmaputra. In Purnea, the Bengali used is much mixed with the adjoining Maithili Bihārī, and the Kaithī character of Bihar is even used for recording the Bengali language.

The Eastern branch of Bengali may be taken as having the District of Dacca for

Eastern Bengali.	Survey.
Standard . . .	16,910,651
Rājbangsī . . .	3,509,171
South-Eastern . . .	2,310,784
TOTAL	22,730,606

its centre, where what may be called Standard Eastern Bengali is spoken. The true eastern dialect is not spoken west of the Brahmaputra, though, when we cross the river, coming from Dacca, we meet a well-marked form of speech in Rangpur and the

districts to its north and east. It is called Rājbangsī, and, while undoubtedly belonging to the eastern branch, has still points of difference which lead us to class it as a separate dialect. In the Darjeeling Tarai it is known as Bāhē. The characteristic signs of Eastern Bengali are first noticeable in the Districts of Khulna and Jessore, and are found all over the eastern half of the Gangetic Delta. It then extends in a north-

easterly direction following the valleys of the Megna and its affluents over the Districts of Tippera, Dacca, Mymensingh, Sylhet, and Cachar. In every direction its further progress is stopped by the hills which bound these regions, and throughout the Surma Valley and in Mymensingh, we also find a mongrel dialect spoken by some of the less civilized tribes, called Haijong or Hājong, which is a mixture of Bengali and Tibeto-

<p>Haijong</p> <p>Chākṃā</p>	<p>Survey. 5,000</p> <p>Survey. 20,000</p>	<p>Burman languages. Along the eastern littoral of the Bay of Bengal there is a south-western dialect also of the type, and inland there is another curious dialect, called Chākṃā, spoken by tribes of the Chittagong Hill Tracts. This last has a written character of its own, similar to, but more archaic than, the one used for writing Burmese. Another mongrel language is Daingnet. Some people claim it to be Bengali, but the latest cataloguers put it down as a corrupt form of Chin, and as such it is recorded in these pages.¹</p>
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Some remarks must be made regarding the manner in which the many Sanskrit words used in the literary dialect are pronounced in Bengali. Bengali pronunciation. It should be remembered that these words are just as foreign to the language as Latin words are to French, or as French words are to English, and Bengalis pronounce their Sanskrit words much in the way that Englishmen speak 'Frenche ful fayre and fetisly, after the scole of Stratford atte bowe.' During the period in which the Prakrits represented the spoken language of India, the vocal organs of the Indo-Aryan were incapable of pronouncing without difficulty letters and sounds which had been easy to their forefathers. As they pronounced them differently, they spelt them differently, and owing to the records left by the Hindū grammarians we know how they did pronounce them. When they wanted to talk of the Goddess of Wealth, whom their ancestors had called Lakshmi, they found that it cost them too much trouble to pronounce *kshm*, and so they simplified matters by saying, and writing, *Lachchhī* or, dialectically, *Lakkhī*. Again, when they wanted to ask for cooked rice, which their forefathers called *bhakta*, they found the *kt* too hard to pronounce, and so said, and wrote, *bhatta*, just as the Italians find it difficult to say *factum*, and say, and write, *fatto*. Again, some of them could not pronounce an *s* clearly, so they had to say *sh*. When they wanted to talk of the sea, they could not say *sāgara*, but said, and wrote, *shāgara* or *shāyara*. As a last example, if they wanted to express the idea conveyed by the word 'external,' they could not say *bāhya*, and so they said, and wrote, *bajjha*. Now, I have already explained that the modern Bengali is descended from an Apabhramśa closely connected with that very Māgadhi Prakrit from which the above examples are all taken. The very same incapacities of the vocal organs exist with Bengalis now, that existed with their predecessors a thousand years ago. A Bengali cannot easily pronounce *kshm* any more than they could. He cannot pronounce a clear *s*, but must make it *sh*. The compound letter *hy* beats him, and instead he has to say *jjh*. These are only a few examples of facts which might be multiplied indefinitely. Nevertheless, a Bengali when he borrows his Sanskrit words writes them in the Sanskrit fashion, which is, say, at least two thousand years out of date, and then reads them as if they were Māgadhi Prakrit words. He writes *Lakshmī*, and says *Lakkhī*. He writes *sāgara*, and says *shāgar*, or, if he is uneducated, *shāyar*. He writes *bāhya*, and says *bajjha*. In other words, he writes Sanskrit, and from that writing reads another

¹ *Ante*, p. 77.

language. It is exactly as if an Italian were to write *factum*, when he says *fatto*, or as if a Frenchman were to write the Latin *sicca*, while he says *sèche*, or as if he were to write the Latin *de horâ in ab ante*, and read it *dorénavant*. The outcome of this state of affairs is that, to a foreigner, the great difficulty of Bengali is its pronunciation. Like English, but for a different reason, its pronunciation is not represented by its spelling. The vocabulary of the modern literary language is largely Sanskrit, and few of these words are pronounced as they are written. Bengalis themselves struggle vainly with a number of complicated sounds, which the disuse of centuries has rendered their vocal organs unable, or too lazy, to produce. The result is a maze of half-pronounced consonants and broken vowels not provided for by their alphabet, amid which the unfortunate foreigner wanders without a guide, and for which his own larynx is as unsuited as is a Bengali's for the sounds of Sanskrit.

Bengali has a genuine popular literature extending from at least the fifteenth century to the end of the eighteenth. Since then the so-called 'revival of learning' has galvanized into a vigorous existence the Bengali literature of the present day, at first largely based on English models, containing many excellent works and some few of genius, but, as a rule, not popular in the true sense of the word. Of the earlier writers, perhaps Chandi Dās and Mukunda Rām are the two whose writings will best repay perusal. Their writings come from the heart and not from the school, and are full of passages adorned with true poetry and descriptive power. Extracts from the works of Mukunda Rām have been admirably translated into English verse by the late Professor Cowell.

The well-known Bengali character is a by-form of the Nāgarī type of Indian alphabets, which became established in Eastern India about the eleventh century of our era. Varieties of it are used for Assamese, and by the Brāhmans for the Maithili dialect of Bihāri.

Assamese is the last of the speeches of the Outer Sub-Branch. As its name implies, it is the language of the Assam Valley, over the whole of which it is the only Aryan tongue, except in the extreme west, where, in the District of Goalpara, it merges into Bengali. Elsewhere it is surrounded entirely by Indo-Chinese or Austric languages. The influence of these non-Aryan languages has not been great. A few words have been borrowed, and one or two old Aryan forms (such as the use of pronominal suffixes) have been retained, owing to

Assamese.	Survey.	Census of 1921.	
Eastern, or Standard	859,950	...	the existence of somewhat similar idioms prevailing among the neighbouring tribes.
Western	543,500	...	Western Assamese differs slightly from that spoken at the eastern end of the Valley, but
Mayāng	23,500	...	the only true dialect is Mayāng or Bishnu-
Jharwā	9,000	...	puriyā, spoken by a Hindū colony in the
Unspecified	11,602	...	State of Manipur and by scattered members
TOTAL	1,447,552	1,727,328	

of the same tribe in Sylhet and Cachar. From its geographical position we should expect Mayāng to be a dialect of Bengali, rather than of Assamese, and it would not be wrong to class it as the former; but I place it under Assamese, as it has several of the typical characteristics of that language. We may also mention a mongrel trade language, which has developed

at the foot of the Garo Hills under the name of Jharwā. It is a 'pigeon' mixture of Bengali, Garo, and Assamese. The Assamese are a home-staying race, and the only localities in which their language is found spoken by any considerable number of people outside the Assam Valley are the hills of that province, and the Bengali-speaking Districts of Sylhet and Cachar.

Jharwā.

Like Oriyā, Assamese is a sister, not a daughter, of Bengali. It comes from Bihar, through Northern Bengal, not through Bengal proper. It was, nevertheless, once hotly argued whether Assamese was a dialect of Bengali or not. A great deal of this is a mere question of words which is capable of being discussed *ad infinitum*. The words 'dialect' and 'language' are no more capable of mutually exclusive definition than are 'variety' and 'species' or 'hill' and 'mountain.' It may be admitted that Assamese grammar does not differ to any considerable extent from that of Bengali; but, if we apply another test, that of the possession of a written literature, we can have no hesitation in maintaining that Assamese is entitled to claim an independent existence as the speech of an independent nationality, and to have a standard of its own, different from that which a native of Calcutta would wish to impose upon it.

Assamese differs most widely from Bengali in its pronunciation. It has, besides the usual sound of *a* as that of *o* in 'hot,' a long drawled *a* something like the sound of *o* in 'glory.' Little distinction is made between long and short vowels, accent having, as in modern Greek, everywhere superseded quantity. No difference is made between the cerebral and dental consonants, both being sounded as semi-cerebrals like the English *t* and *d*. The consonants *ch* and *chh* have the sound of *s* in 'sin,' and *j* that of *z* in 'azure.' On the other hand the letter *s* is pronounced with a peculiar guttural sound approaching that of *ch* in 'loch.' The declension of nouns does not differ materially from that of colloquial (not literary) Bengali, but the conjugation of verbs has many characteristic features in points of detail that need not here be mentioned. The Assamese vocabulary, even when used in literature, is much more free from Tatsamas than is that of Bengali.

Assamese compared with Bengali.

The Assamese have just reason to be proud of their national literature. In no department have they been more successful than in history, a branch of study in which the rest of India is, as a rule, curiously deficient. The chain of historical events for the past six hundred years has been carefully preserved, and their authenticity can be relied upon. These historical works, originally written in imitation of the chronicles kept by the Āhom conquerors of the country, and still called by their Āhom name, are numerous and voluminous. According to the custom of the country, a knowledge of these histories was an indispensable qualification to an Assamese gentleman; and every family of distinction, as well as the government and public officers, kept the most minute records of contemporary events. But Assamese literature is by no means confined to history. Some seventy poetical works, principally religious, have been catalogued. One of the oldest poets, and at the same time most celebrated, was Śrī Śaṅkara Dēva, who flourished in the first half of the sixteenth century, and translated the Bhāgavata Purāṇa into Assamese. Other authors were Rāma Saraswatī, the translator both of the Mahābhārata and the Rāmāyaṇa, and Mādhava, the author of the *Bhakti-ratnāvali* and other poems. The Hindū system

Literature.

of medicine was professionally studied by numerous Assam families of distinction, and some knowledge of the science formed one of the necessary acquirements of a well-bred gentleman. Hence arose a good stock of medical works, principally translations or adaptations from Sanskrit into the vernacular. We know of at least forty dramatic works written during the past five hundred years, and many of these are still acted in the village *nāmghars*. The whole of the Scriptures was translated into Assamese by the Serampore missionaries in the year 1819, and several editions have since been issued. In later years, the American Baptist Mission Press has published a large number of works religious and lay, and has done much to keep the language pure and uncontaminated by the neighbouring Bengali.

The character used in writing Assamese is nearly the same as that employed for Bengali. It has one sign, that to represent the sound of *w*, which is wanting in the alphabet of that language.

Written character.

CHAPTER XIV.—INDO-ARYAN LANGUAGES. MEDIANE SUB-BRANCH.

We now come to that form of speech which is intermediate between the Outer and Inner linguistic Sub-Branches. It is the vernacular of the country in which the hero Rāma-chandra was born ; and

Mediane Sub-Branch.		
Eastern Hindi.	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Awadhī .	16,143,548	...
Baghēli .	4,612,756	...
Chhattisgarhī .	3,755,343	...
TOTAL .	24,511,647	22,567,882 ¹

the Jain apostle Mahāvira used an early form of it to convey his teaching to his disciples. A development of the Prakrit of that tract, Ardha-Māgadhī, hence became the sacred language of the Jains, and its modern successor, Eastern Hindi, through

the influence of a great poetical genius, became the medium for celebrating the Gestes of Rāma, and, in consequence, the dialect used for at least half the literature of Hindōstān.

Eastern Hindi, which includes three dialects, Awadhī, Baghēli, and Chhattisgarhī, occupies parts of six Provinces, namely, Oudh, the Province of Agra, Baghelkhand, Bundelkhand, Chota Nagpur, and the Central Provinces. It covers the whole of Oudh, except the District of Hardoi and a part of Fyzabad. In the Province of Agra it covers, roughly speaking, the country between Benares and Hamirpur in Bundelkhand. It occupies the whole of Baghelkhand, the north-east of Bundelkhand, the west and the south-Sone tract of Mirzapur, the States of Chang Bhakar, Sirguja, Udaipur, Korea, and a portion of Jashpur in Chota Nagpur. In the Central Provinces it covers the Districts of Jubbulpore and Mandla, and the greater part of Chhattisgarh with its Feudatory States.

The three dialects of Eastern Hindi closely resemble each other. Indeed, Baghēli differs so little from Awadhī, that, were it not popularly recognized as a separate speech, I should be inclined to class it as a form of that dialect. Chhattisgarhī, under the influence of the neighbouring Marāthī and Oṛiyā, shows greater points of difference ; but its close connexion with Awadhī is nevertheless apparent. The Awadhī-Baghēli dialect covers the whole of

the Eastern Hindi area of the United Provinces and of Bundelkhand, Baghelkhand, Chang Bhakar, and the Districts of Jubbulpore and Mandla. It is also spoken by some scattered tribes in the Central Provinces to the south and west. If we wish to make a dividing line between Awadhī and Baghēli, we may take the river Jamna where it runs between Fatehpur and Banda, and thence the southern boundary of the Allahabad District. The boundary must, however, be uncertain, for there is hardly any definite peculiarity which we can seize upon as

a decisive test. Chhattisgarhī occupies the remaining area of the Eastern Hindi tract ; that is to say, the States of Udaipur, Korea, and Sirguja, a portion of Jashpur, and the greater part of Chhattisgarh. As above described, Eastern Hindi occupies an irregular oblong tract of country, extending from, but not including, Nepal to the Bastar State in the Central Provinces, much longer from north to south than it is from east to west. Its mean length may be roughly taken as 750 miles, and its mean breadth as 250, which together give an area of about 187,500 square miles. The total number of speakers is about equal to the entire

¹In the Census returns, nearly all the speakers of Eastern Hindi are shown as speaking Western Hindi. In the returns, only 1,399,528 are shown for Eastern Hindi. The figures given above are corrected estimates.

population of Brazil, of Czecho-Slovakia and Yugo-Slavia combined, or of the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh.

Owing to the former prestige of the Lucknow Court, Awadhī is now also spoken as a vernacular by Musalmāns over the eastern half of the United Provinces and over the greater part of Bihar, the language of the Hindū majority of this tract being Bihārī.

It is difficult to say how many of these Muslims do use Awadhī, but, so far as my information goes, I can estimate them as numbering about a million. Large numbers of speakers of Eastern Hindī are scattered all over Northern India.

Putting aside the number of Oudh men who have travelled abroad in quest of service, there is our Indian Army which is largely recruited in that Province.

Eastern Hindī is bounded on the north by the languages of the Nepal Himalaya and on the west by various dialects of Western Hindī, of which the principal are Kanaujī and Bundēli. On the east it is bounded by the Bhojpurī dialect of Bihārī and by Oṛiyā. On the south it meets forms of the Marāṭhī language.

It would take up too much space to examine fully the relationship which Eastern Hindī bears to the languages on its east and west. In its pronunciation it follows that of the west in the most important particulars, while in the declension of nouns (although it has typical peculiarities of its own) it in the main follows Bihārī. So also in the declension of its pronouns it follows the eastern languages; for instance, its possessive pronoun of the first person is *mōr*, not *mērā*. In the conjugation of verbs it occupies a true intermediate position. We have seen that the typical characteristic of the eastern languages in this respect is the use of personal terminations in the past tense, of which the base ends in *l*. Eastern Hindī does not use a participle in *l*, but does employ the same personal terminations as those which are found in Bihārī. For instance, the Western Hindī participle 'struck' is *mārā*, which is a contracted form of *māriā*, while the Bihārī form is *mārila*. In the west, 'he struck' is *mārā* (i.e. *māriā*) without any termination. In Bihārī it is *mārilas*, with the termination *s*, meaning 'he' (or, literally, 'by him'). Eastern Hindī takes the Western *māriā*, and adds to it the Bihārī termination *s*, so that it has *māria-s*, more usually pronounced *māris*. In the future tense it is still more mixed. Its first person commonly follows the Eastern fashion, and its third the Western. The second person wavers between the two. Thus, 'I shall strike' is the Eastern *mārabō*, while 'he will strike' is the Western *mārihē*. We thus see that Eastern Hindī occupies an intermediate position between the Central languages and those of the East, exactly like the 'Half-Māgadhī' from which it is descended.

Two dialects of Eastern Hindī, Awadhī and Baghēli, have received considerable literary culture. Of these the Awadhī literature is by far the more important. The earliest writer of note in that dialect was a Musalmān, Malik Muḥammad of Jāyas (fl. 1540 A.D.), the author of the fine philosophic epic entitled the *Padumāwati*. This work, while telling in poetry of a high order the story of Ratan

Sēn's quest for the fair Padmāvati, of 'Alāu'ddin's ruthless siege of the virgin city of Chitaur, of Ratan's valour, and of Padmāvati's wifely devotion culminating in the terrible sacrifice of all in the doomed city that was true and fair, to save it from the lust of the Tartar conqueror, is also an allegory describing the search of the soul for the true wisdom, and the trials and temptations that beset it on its course. Malik Muhammad's ideal of life was high, and throughout the work of the Muslim ascetic there run veins of the broadest charity and of sympathy with those higher spirits among his Hindū fellow countrymen who were groping in the dark for that light of which many obtained more than a passing glimpse. .

Half a century later, contemporary with our Shakespeare, we find the poet and reformer Tulasī Dās (d. 1623). This extraordinary man, who, if we take for our test the influence that he exercises at the present day, was one of the half-dozen great writers that Asia has produced, deserves more than a brief reference. He is commonly known to Europeans as the author of a history of Rāma, but he was far more than that. He occupies a position among the singers of the Rāma Saga peculiar to himself. Unlike the numerous religious poets who dwelt in the Dōāb, and whose theme was Kṛishṇa, he lived humbly in Benares, unequalled and alone in his niche in the Temple of Fame. Disciples he had in plenty,—to-day they are numbered by millions,—but imitators, none. Looking back through the vista of centuries we see his noble figure standing in its own pure light as the guide and saviour of Hindōstān. His influence has never ceased, nay, it has ever kept increasing ; and only when we reflect upon the fate of Tantra-ridden Bengal or on the wanton orgies that are carried out under the name of Kṛishṇa-worship, can we justly appreciate the work of the man who first in Northern India taught the infinite vileness of sin and the infinite graciousness of the Deity, and whose motto might have been—

‘ He prayeth best who loveth best

All things both great and small.’

But Tulasī Dās did not only teach this elevated system of religion,—he succeeded in getting his teaching accepted. He founded no sect, laid down no dogmatic creed, and yet his great work is at the present day the one Bible of ninety millions of people, and fortunate it has been for them that they had this guide. It has been received as the perfect example of the perfect book, and thus its influence has been exercised not only over the unlettered multitude, but over the long series of authors who followed him, and especially over the crowd which sprang into existence with the introduction of printing at the beginning of the last century. As Mr. Growse says, in the Introduction to his translation of the *Ramāyana* of this author, ‘the book is in everyone's hands, from the court to the cottage, and is read and heard and appreciated alike by every class of the Hindū community, whether high or low, rich or poor, young or old.’ In fact the importance of Tulasī Dās in the history of India cannot be overrated. Putting the literary merits of his work out of the question, the fact of its *universal* acceptance by all classes, from Bhagalpur to the Panjab, and from the Himalaya to the Nerbudda, surely demands more than a polite acknowledgment of his existence. Half a century ago, an old missionary said to me that no one could hope to understand the natives of Upper India, till he had mastered every line that Tulasī Dās had written. I have since learned to know how right he was.

The result of the commanding position which this poet occupies in the literary history of India is that the Awadhī dialect in which he wrote has since been accepted as the only form of North Indian speech in which certain classes of poetry can be composed. For the past three centuries the great mass of Indian poetical literature has been inspired by one or other of two themes, the history of Rāma and the history of Kṛishṇa. The scene of the latter's early exploits was the central Dōāb together with the District of Muttra to its south, and the Braj Bhākhā of that tract has been used as the means of recording it. But nearly all the vast literature dealing with Rāma has been composed in Awadhī. Nay, more, the use of Awadhī has extended, so that, excepting that devoted to the Kṛishṇa Saga, nine-tenths of all the poetry of North India have been written in it. Such, for instance, is the great translation of the Mahābhārata made at the commencement of the last century for the Mahārāja of Benares. The list of authors in this dialect is a long one, and their works include many of great merit.

The other form of Awadhī, Baghēlī, has also a considerable literature. Under the enlightened patronage of the Kings of Rewa, a school of poets arose in that country, whose works still enjoy a considerable reputation. These were, however, rather the products of scholars and critics who wrote about poetry than of poets themselves. The critical faculty was finely developed, but the authors were not 'makers' in the true sense of the word.

CHAPTER XV.—INDO-ARYAN LANGUAGES. INNER SUB-BRANCH.

We now come to the consideration of the Inner Sub-Branch. The languages of this

Inner Sub-Branch.	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Central Group	81,665,821	81,745,955
Pahārī Group	2,104,801	1,917,537
TOTAL	83,770,622	83,663,492
Central Group.	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Western Hindī	38,013,928	41,210,916 ¹
Pañjābī	12,762,639	16,233,596 ²
Rājasthānī	16,296,260	12,680,562
Gujarātī	10,646,227	9,551,992
Bhīlī	2,691,701	1,855,617
Khāndēśī	1,253,066	213,272
TOTAL	81,665,821	81,745,955

Sub-Branch fall into two groups, the Central and the Pahārī. The Central Group includes Western Hindī, Pañjābī, Rājasthānī, Gujarātī, Bhīlī, and Khāndēśī.

Western Hindī covers the country between Sahrind [Sirhind] in the Panjab and Allahabad in the United Provinces. This almost exactly corresponds to the *Madhyadēśā* or 'mid-land' referred to above³ as the true, pure home of the Indo-Aryan people. It is through this land that the mysterious River Sarasvatī of Indian legend flows underground, from where it disappears in the sands of the Eastern Panjab to the Prayāg, near Allahabad, where it mingles its waters with those of the Jamna and the Ganges. On the north, Western Hindī extends to the foot of the Himalaya, but on the south it does not reach much beyond the valley of the Jamna, except towards the east, where it occupies most of Bundelkhand and a part of the Central Provinces. The number of its speakers (thirty-eight millions) is the same as that of the population of Italy and four millions more than that of England. It has several recognized dialects, of which the principal are Hindōstānī, Braj Bhākhā,

Western Hindī.	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Hindōstānī	16,633,169	...
Bāngarū	2,166,784	...
Braj Bhākhā	7,864,274	...
Kanaujī	4,481,500	...
Bundēlī	6,869,201	...
TOTAL	38,013,928	41,210,916¹

Kanaujī, and Bundēlī, to which we may add the Bāngarū of the South-Eastern Panjab. Of these, Hindōstānī is now the recognized literary form of Western Hindī, and it will be more convenient to consider it last. The home of Braj Bhākhā is the Central Dōāb

and the country immediately to its south from near Delhi to, say, Etawah, its head-quarters being round the town of Mathurā [Muttra]. South and west of the Jamna it is also spoken in Gurgaon, in the States of Bharatpur and Karauli, and in the north-west of the Gwalior Agency. To the west and south it gradually merges into Rājasthānī. For more than two thousand years Mathurā has been one of the most important centres of Indo-Aryan civilization. Here also tradition places the earthly scenes of the earlier life of the famous god Kṛishṇa. It was thus natural that the dialect of this country,—the direct descendant of the old Prakrit of Śūrasēna, should be used for literature. In the Sanskrit dramas, the ordinary conversation in prose of women of the upper classes was couched in Śaurasēnī Prakrit, and a variety of the same dialect was employed by the Digambara Jains for their sacred books. In ancient times a part of Śūrasēna was known as Vraja, *i.e.*, the country of the cow-pens, and from this is derived the modern appellation of Braj, with its language

¹ See note to p. 158.

² These Census figures include many speakers of Lahndā, wrongly classed under Pañjābī.

³ See p. 117.

known as Braj Bhākhā. The most important writer in the modern vernacular was the blind bard Sūr Dās, who flourished in the middle of the sixteenth century. As Tulāsī Dās sang of Rāma, so Sūr Dās sang of Kṛishṇa, and between them, according to Indian opinion, they have exhausted all the possibilities of poetic art. Many are the traditions of minor poets who were unable to produce a single line which was not to be found already existing in the works of one or other of these two masters of song. To the European mind there can be little comparison between the two. Sūr Dās was a voluminous author who sang in one key, a sweet one it is true, while Tulāsī Dās, besides being a great reformer who rose superior to dogma and to creeds and who refused to found a sect, was a master of the whole gamut of human passion. Sūr Dās was not only one of the founders of a sect, but was also the creator of a school of poets whose theme was Kṛishṇa, and especially the youthful Kṛishṇa, the companion of the herd-girls of Mathurā, — a school which still exists and still expresses itself through the medium of Braj Bhākhā. The most celebrated of his followers was Bihārī Lāl (early part of the seventeenth century), the author of the famous *Sat Sai*, or Seven Centuries of perfectly turned couplets.

Kanaujī is the dialect of the lower Dōāb from about Etawah to near Allahabad.

Kanaujī. Opposite the ancient town of Kanauj, from which it takes its name, it has also spread across the Ganges into the District of Hardoi and further north. It is nearly related to Braj Bhākhā, being really little more than a sub-dialect of that form of speech. It has received small literary cultivation, being completely overshadowed by its more powerful neighbour, but the Serampore missionaries used it for one of their translations of the New Testament in the early part of the last century. If we may trust the evidence of their translation, the dialect has since then lost several old historical forms which existed in Kanaujī a century ago, and which are still found in some of the Rājasthānī dialects and in the Khas of Nepal.

Bundēlī is the dialect of Western Hindī spoken in Bundelkhand and the neighbourhood, including not only the Bundelkhand Agency, but also Jalaun, Hamirpur, and Jhansi, together with the eastern portion of the Gwalior Agency. It is also spoken in the adjoining parts of Bhopal, and in the Damoh, Saugor, Seoni, and Narsinghpur, and parts of the Hoshangabad and Chhindwara Districts of the Central Provinces. Banda, though politically in Bundelkhand, does not speak Bundēlī. Here the language is mixed, but is in the main Baghēlī. Bundēlī has a small literature dating from the time of Chhattar Sāl of Panna and his immediate predecessors of the early part of the eighteenth century. The Serampore missionaries translated the New Testament into it. The city of Mahoba is within Bundelkhand, and hence it follows that the most famous folk-epic of northern India, the Lay of Ālhā and Ūdan, which deals with the fortunes of Mahoba and its capture by Prithīrāja of Delhi, is sung by wandering bards in the Bundēlī dialect.

These three dialects, Braj Bhākhā, Kanaujī and Bundēlī, are all closely connected with each other, and are typically pure forms of the speech of the Inner Sub-Branch.

The Western Hindī spoken in the south-east of the Panjab has several local names, but it is everywhere the same dialect. In the Hariāna tract of Hissar and Jind, it is recognized by Europeans under the name of Hariānī. They, however, call the same form of speech, when they meet it in Rohtak, Dujana, the country parts of Delhi District and Karnal, simply 'Hindī.'

Natives of the country sometimes call it Jātū, and sometimes Bāngarū, according to the caste of the people who speak it or to the tract in which it is spoken. Bāngarū, or the language of the Bāngar, the high and dry tract of the south-eastern Panjab west of the Ganges, appears to be the most suitable name by which to identify it. This form of Western Hindī has Pañjābī to its north and west, and Ahīrwāṭī and Mārwarī (both dialects of Rājasthānī) to its south, and it is a mixture of the three languages, with Western Hindī as its basis. It does not extend farther north than Karnal. North of Karnal lies the District of Ambala, in the east of which the form of Western Hindī that we find spoken is the same as the Vernacular Hindōstānī of the Upper Dōāb which will now be described. In west Ambala we find Pañjābī.

As a vernacular, Hindōstānī is the dialect of Western Hindī which exhibits the language in the act of shading off into Pañjābī. It has the Western Hindī grammar, but the terminations are those that we find in Pañjābī. Thus, the true Western Hindī postposition of the genitive is *kan*, and the corresponding form in Pañjābī is *dā*. The Hindōstānī dialect of Western Hindī takes the *k* of *kan*, but the termination *ā* of the Pañjābī *dā*, and has *kā*. So also all adjectives and participles. Hindōstānī must be considered under two aspects, (1) as a vernacular dialect of Western Hindī, and (2) as the well-known literary language of Hindostan and the *lingua franca* current over nearly the whole of India. As a vernacular, it may be taken as the dialect of Western Hindī spoken in the Upper Gangetic Dōāb, in Rohilkhand, and in the east of the Ambala District in the Panjab. It is spoken in its greatest purity round Mēraṭh [Meerut] and to the north. In Rohilkhand it gradually shades off into Kanaujī, and in Ambala into Pañjābī. In the rest of the Eastern Panjab the language is Bāngarū except in Gurgaon where Vernacular Hindōstānī merges into Braj Bhākhā, which may be considered to be established in the east of that District. In this neighbourhood, save in a few minor particulars, the language is practically the same as that taught in the usual Hindōstānī grammars.¹ It is not, however, as the vernacular of the Upper Dōāb that Hindōstānī is generally known. To Europeans it is the polite speech of India generally, and more especially of Hindostan. The name itself is of European coinage, and indicates the idea that is thus suggested, it being rarely used by Indians except under European influence. As a *lingua franca*² Hindōstānī grew up in the bazaar attached to the Delhi Court, and was carried everywhere in India by the lieutenants of the Mughul Empire. Since then its seat has been secure. It has several varieties, amongst which may be mentioned Urdū, Rēkhṭa, Dakhinī, and Hindī. Urdū is that form of Hindōstānī which is written in the Persian character, and which makes a free use of Persian (including Arabic) words in its vocabulary. The name is said to be derived from the *Urdū-ē-mu'alla* or royal military bazaar outside the Delhi

Hindōstānī.

As a vernacular.

As a literary language and *lingua franca*.

Urdū.

¹ It will be noticed that this account of Hindōstānī and its origin differs widely from that which has been given hitherto by most writers, which was based on Mir Amman's preface to the 'Bāgh o Bahār.' According to him Urdū was a mongrel mixture of the languages of the various tribes who flocked to the Delhi Bazaar. The explanation given above was first put forward by Sir Charles Lyall in the year 1880, and the Linguistic Survey has shown the entire correctness of his view. Hindōstānī is simply the vernacular of the Upper Dōāb, on which a certain amount of literary polish has been bestowed, and from which a few rustic idioms have been excluded.

² I use this word for want of a better term, though it is not strictly accurate. Properly speaking, a *lingua franca* is a hybrid tongue employed as an international language. But, though used as an international language, Hindōstānī is not a hybrid. I know of no other convenient English expression that nearly enough indicates the required idea.

palace. It is spoken chiefly in the towns of western Hindostan, by Musalmāns and by Hindūs who have come under the influence of Persian culture. Persian vocables are, it is true, employed in every form of Hindōstānī. We find them even in the correspondence of Prithirāja, who ruled in Delhi before the Muslim conquest of India. Such words have been admitted to full citizenship even in the rustic dialects, or in the elegant Hindī of modern writers like Hariśchandra of Benares. To object to their use would be but affected purism, just as would be the avoidance of the use of all words of Latin origin in English. But in what is known as high Urdū, the use of Persian words is carried to almost incredible extremes. In writings of this class we find whole sentences in which the only Indian thing is the grammar, and with nothing but Persian words from beginning to end. It is curious, moreover, that this extreme Persianization of Hindōstānī is, as Sir Charles Lyall rightly points out, not the work of conquerors ignorant of the tongue of the people. On the contrary, the Urdū language took its rise in the efforts of the ever pliable Hindū to assimilate the language of his rulers. Its authors were Kāyasths and Khatrijs employed in the administration and acquainted with Persian, and not Persians or Persianized Turks, who for many centuries used their own language for literary purposes.¹ To these is due the idea of employing the Persian character for their vernacular speech, and the consequent preference for words to which that character is native. 'Persian is now no foreign idiom in India, and though its excessive use is repugnant to good taste, it would be a foolish purism and a political mistake to attempt (as some have attempted) to eliminate it from the Hindū literature of the day.' I have made this quotation from Sir Charles Lyall's work,² in order to show what an accomplished scholar has to say on one side of a much debated question. That the general principle which he has enunciated is correct, no one will, I think, dispute. Once a word has become domesticated in Hindōstānī no one has any right to object to its use; whatever may be its origin, and opinions will differ only as to what words have received the right of citizenship and what have not. This, after all, is a question of style, and in Hindōstānī as in English, there are styles and styles. For myself, I far prefer the Hindōstānī from which words whose citizenship is in any way doubtful are excluded, but that, I freely admit, is a matter of taste.

Rēkhta (i.e. 'scattered' or 'mixed') is the form which Urdū takes when used by men, especially when employed for poetry. The name is derived

Rēkhta.

from the manner in which Persian words are 'scattered' through it. When poems are written in the special dialect used by women, which has a vocabulary of its own, it is known as **Rēkhti**.

Rēkhti.

Dakhinī is the form of Hindōstānī used by Musalmāns in the Deccan. Like Urdū, it is written in the Persian character, but is much more free from Persianization. It retains grammatical forms (such as

Dakhinī.

mērē kō for *mujh kō*) which are common among the rustics of Northern India, but which are not found in the literary dialect, and in some localities does not use the agent case

¹ English is being introduced into the Indian vernaculars in the same way. A horse-doctor once said to me about a dog licking his wound, 'kuttē-kā salivā bahut antiseptic hai,' and Dr. Grahame Bailey has heard one Pañjābī dentist say to another busy over one of his victims, 'continually excavate na karō.' The 1911 Census Report of the United Provinces (p. 284) quotes an Indian Wakīl, or Attorney, saying in Court, 'is positior-kā incontrovertible proof dē saktā hū, aur mērā epinion yeh hai ki defence-kā argument water-hold nahī kar saktā hai.'

² *Sketch of the Hindustani Language* (Edinburgh, 1830), p. 9.

with *nē* before transitive verbs in the past tense,¹ which is a characteristic feature of all the dialects of Western Hindostan.

The word 'Hindī' is used in several different meanings. It is a Persian, not an Indian, word, and Persian writers used it to denote a native of India, as distinguished from 'Hindū' or non-Musalmān Indian. Thus Amīr Khusrau says, 'whatever live Hindū fell into the king's hands was pounded into bits under the feet of elephants. The Musalmāns who were Hindīs had their lives spared.'² In this sense (and in this way it is still used by natives of India) Bengali and Marāṭhī are as much Hindī as the language of the Dōāb. On the other hand, Europeans use the word in two mutually contradictory senses, *viz.*, sometimes to indicate the Sanskritized, or at least the non-Persianized, form of Hindōstānī which is used as a literary form of speech by Hindūs, and which is usually printed in the Nāgarī character, and sometimes, loosely, to indicate all the rural dialects spoken between Bengal proper and the Panjab. In the present pages I use the word only in the former of these two meanings. This Hindī, therefore, or, as it is sometimes called, 'High Hindī,' is the prose literary language of those Hindūs who do not employ Urdū. It is of modern origin, having been introduced under English influence at the commencement of the last century. Up till then, when a Hindū wrote prose and did not use Urdū, he wrote in his own local dialect, Awadhī, Bundēlī, Braj Bhākhā, Vernacular Hindōstānī, or what not. Lallū Lāl,³ under the inspiration of Dr. Gilchrist, changed all this by writing the well-known *Prēm Sāgar*, a work which was, so far as the prose portions went, practically written in Urdū, with Indo-Aryan words substituted wherever a writer in that form of speech would use Persian ones. It was thus an automatic reversion to the actual vernacular of the Upper Dōāb. The course of this novel experiment was successful from the start. The subject of the first book written in it attracted the attention of all pious Hindūs, and the author's style, musical and rhythmical as the Arabic *saj'*, pleased their ears. Then, the language filled a want. It gave a *lingua franca* to the Hindūs. It enabled men of widely distant provinces to converse with each other without having recourse to the, to them, unclean words of the Musalmāns. Everywhere it was easily intelligible, for its grammar was that of the language that every Hindū had to employ in his business relations with Government officials, and its vocabulary was the common property of all Indo-Aryan languages of northern India. Moreover, very little prose, excepting commentaries and the like, had been written in any modern Indian vernacular before. Literature had almost entirely confined itself to verse. Hence the language of the *Prēm Sāgar* became, naturally enough, the standard of Hindū prose all over Hindostan, from Bihar to the Panjab, and has held its place as such to the present day. Nowadays no Hindū of Upper India dreams of writing in any Indian language except Urdū or Hindī when he is writing prose; but when he takes to verse, he instinctively adopts one of the old national dialects, such as the Awadhī of Tulasī Dās or the Braj Bhākhā of the blind bard of Agra. Of late some attempts have been made to write poetry in literary Hindī, but I do not think that such attempts can have more than a small modicum of success. The tradition of a special language for poetry

¹ As a broad rule, Bombay Dakhinī and all that spoken north of the Satpuras employ *uē*, while Madras Dakhinī does not.

² Elliot, 'History of India,' iii, 539.

³ Lallū Lāl was not the first writer of this modern Hindī. He was preceded a few years by Sadal Miśra, and perhaps by others; but their writings fell stillborn, and have only of late years been revived by antiquarian students of Benares, in whom, unknown to them, has survived the traditional jealousy of Benares Paṇḍits against Lallū Lāl, the Gujarātī Brāhman.

has taken deep root in India, and is well established. Such language is loved and easily understood by every one down to the humblest ploughman, and so long as the influence of such poets as Tulasī Dās prevails it will never fall into disuse.

Since Lallū Lāl's time Hindī has developed for itself certain rules of style which differentiate it from Urdū. The principal of these relate to the order of words, which is much less free than in that form of Hindōstānī. It has also, of late years, fallen under the fatal spell of Sanskrit, and is showing signs of becoming, in the hands of Paṇḍits, and under the encouragement of some European writers who have learnt Hindī through Sanskrit, as debased as literary Bengali without the same excuse. Hindī has so copious a vocabulary of its own, rooted in the very beings of the peasantry upon whose language it is based, that nine-tenths of the Sanskrit words which one meets in many modern Hindī books are useless and unintelligible excrescences. The employment of Sanskrit words is supposed to add dignity to the style. One might as well say that a graceful girl of eighteen gained in dignity by masquerading in the furbelows of her great grandmother. Some enlightened Indian scholars are struggling hard, without displaying any affected purism, against this too easily acquired infection, and we may hope that their efforts will meet with the encouragement that they deserve.

We may now define the three main varieties of Hindōstānī as follows :—Hindōstānī Hindōstānī, Urdū, and Hindī. is primarily the language of the Northern Dōāb, and is also the *lingua franca* of India, capable of being written both in the Persian and the Nāgarī characters and, without purism, avoiding alike the excessive use of either Persian or Sanskrit words when employed for literature. The name 'Urdū' can then be confined to that special variety of Hindōstānī in which Persian words are of frequent occurrence, and which therefore can only be written with ease in the Persian character; and, similarly, 'Hindī' can be confined to the form of Hindōstānī in which Sanskrit words abound, and which therefore is legible only when written in the Nāgarī character. These are the definitions which were proposed by the late Mr. Growse, and they have the advantage of being intelligible, while at the same time they do not overlap. Hitherto, all these words have been very loosely employed. Finally, I use 'Eastern Hindī' to connote the group of intermediate dialects of which Awadhī is the chief, and 'Western Hindī' to connote the group of dialects of which Braj Bhākhā and Hindōstānī (in its different phases) are the best known examples.

As a literary language, the earliest specimens of Hindōstānī are in Urdū, or rather *Literature.* Rēkh̥ta, for they are poetical works. Its cultivation began in the Deccan at the end of the sixteenth century, and it received a definite standard of form a hundred years later, principally at the hand of Walī of Aurangabad, commonly called 'the Father of Rēkh̥ta.' The example of Walī was quickly taken up at Delhi, where a school of poets took its rise of which the most brilliant members were Saudā (d. 1780), the author of the famous satires, and Mīr Taqī (d. 1810). Another school, almost equally celebrated, arose at Lucknow during the troubled time at Delhi in the middle of the eighteenth century. The great difference between the poetry of Urdū and that written in the various dialects of Eastern or Western Hindī lies in the system of prosody. In the former, the prosody is that of the Persian language, while in the latter it is the altogether opposed indigenous system of India. Moreover, the former is entirely based on Persian models of composition, which

are quite different from the older works from which the native literature took its origin. Urdū prose came into existence, as a literary medium, at the beginning of the last century in Calcutta. Like Hindi prose, its earliest attempts were due to English influence, and to the need of textbooks in both forms of Hindōstānī for the College of Fort William. *The Bāgh o Bahār* of Mir Amman, and the *Khīrad Afrōz* of Ḥafīzū'd-dīn Aḥmad are familiar examples of the earlier of these works in Urdū, as the already mentioned *Prēm Sāgar* written by Lallū Lāl is an example of those in Hindi. Since those days both Urdū prose and Hindi prose have had a prosperous course, and it is unnecessary to dwell upon the copious literature that has poured from the press in the last century. Muḥammad Ḥusain (Āzād) and Paṇḍit Ratan Nāth (Sarshār) are probably amongst the most eminent writers of Urdū prose, while in Hindi the late Hariśchandra of Benares by universal consent holds the first place. As already explained, Hindi, as defined above, has hardly any poetical literature. Such as there is is confined to what are little more than experiments carried out during the past few years. All the great Hindū poetical works are written in one or other of the Eastern or Western Hindi dialects. There are several excellent modern Urdū poets, of whom the most celebrated is probably Alṭāf Ḥusain (Ḥālī), whose Quatrains have been admirably translated into English by the late Mr. G. E. Ward.

Pañjābī is spoken over the greater part of the eastern half of the Province of the

Pañjābī.

Panjab, in the northern corner of the Rajputana State of Bikaner, and in the southern half of the State of Jammu.

It is bounded on the north and north-east by the Western Pahārī of the lower ranges of the Himalaya, on the east by Western Hindī,—in East Ambala by the Vernacular Hindōstānī, and in the country immediately to the west of the Jamna by the Bāngarū dialect,—on the south by the Bāgrī and Bikanērī dialects of Rājasthānī, and on the west by Lahndā. In describing the last-named language¹ I have dealt at some length on the mutual relationship between it and Pañjābī. I explained that the whole Panjab was the meeting ground of two distinct forms of speech, *viz.*, the old Outer language strongly influenced by Dardic, if not actually Dardic, which expanded from the Indus Valley eastwards, and the old Midland language, the parent of modern Western Hindī, which expanded from the Jamna Valley westwards. In the Panjab these overlapped. In the Eastern Panjab the wave of Dardic with the old Lahndā had nearly exhausted itself, and the old Western Hindī had the mastery, the resultant language being Pañjābī, while in the Western Panjab the old Western Hindī had nearly exhausted itself, the resultant language being modern Lahndā. It is thus impossible to draw any clear dividing line between Pañjābī and Lahndā, and all that we can do is to take the 74th degree of East Longitude as a conventional frontier between the two forms of speech, with the understanding that this is an attempt to define a state of affairs that is essentially indefinite. On the other hand the line between Western Hindī and Pañjābī is more distinct, and may be taken as the meridian passing through Sahrind [Sirhind]. The net result is that we may say that the language of the extreme Eastern Panjab is Western Hindī, that of the Western Panjab is Lahndā, and that of the Central and East Central Panjab is Pañjābī.

¹ See pp. 135, 138.

The mixed character of the languages of the Central and Western Panjab (Pañjābī and Lahndā) is well illustrated by the character given to the inhabitants of these tracts by a hostile writer in the Mahābhārata, and by incidental references in the grammar of Pāṇini. Although not distant from the holy Sarasvatī, the centre from which Sanskrit civilization spread, we learn that the laws and customs of the Panjab were at a very early period widely different from those of the Midland. The people are at one time described as living in a state of kingless anarchy, and at another time as possessing no Brāhmans (a dreadful thing to an orthodox Hindū), living in petty villages, and governed by princes who supported themselves by internecine war. Not only were there no Brāhmans, but there were no castes, or else it was possible for a man of one caste to adopt another. The population had no respect for the Vēda, and offered no sacrifices to the gods. They were rude and uncultivated, given to drinking spirituous liquor, and eating all kinds of flesh. Their women were large-bodied, yellow, extremely immoral in their behaviour, and seem to have lived in a condition of polyandry, a man's heir being not his son, but the son of his sister.¹ That this account was true in every particular need not be urged. It was given to us by enemies; but, whether true or not, it illustrates the gulf in regard to habits, customs, and language, that existed between the Midland and the Panjab.

Pañjābī is spoken by thirteen millions of people, a number equivalent to the population of Czecho-Slovakia. It has two dialects,—the Standard and Dōgrī. The Standard dialect is spoken over the plains portion of the Central Panjab, and varies slightly from place to place, the form spoken round Amritsar, *i.e.*, in the *Mājh* or middle part of the Bari Dōāb, being considered to be the purest. Its proper national character is the *Laṇḍā* or 'clipped' alphabet also in use for Lahndā, and described above on p. 138. As elsewhere, this is seldom legible to anyone except the writer, and not always to him. According to tradition, Aṅgada (1538-52), the second Sikh Guru, found that the hymns of his religion when written in this character were liable to be misread, and he accordingly improved it by borrowing signs from the Nāgarī alphabet and by polishing up the forms of the existing letters. The resultant alphabet became known as the *Gurmukhī*, or that which proceeds from the mouth of the Guru. This Gurmukhī alphabet is the one now used for printed texts employed by the Sikhs of the Panjab, and is also used by Hindūs of the same country. Musalmāns, as a rule, prefer the Persian alphabet.

Dōgrī is the dialect of Pañjābī spoken in the State of Jammū and in the adjoining parts of the Panjab proper. It closely resembles the Standard dialect. It differs mainly in the forms used in the declension of nouns, and in its vocabulary, which is influenced by Lahndā and Kāshmīrī.

¹ Can the author of this description have had the customs of the Jatts in his mind when writing?

² These Census figures are excessive. Many people are included in them who ought to have been shown under Lahndā.

It has a written character of its own, allied to the *Landā* of the Panjab plains and called *Takkari*, the name of which is probably derived from that of the *Takkas*, a tribe whose capital was the famous *Śākala*, a town which the late Dr. Fleet identified with the modern Sialkot.

Takkari alphabet.

Pañjābī has a small literature, mainly consisting of ballads and folk-epics. These include several cycles of considerable extent, the most important of which are those referring to the famous hero *Rājā Rasālū*, to *Hirā* and *Rānjhā*, and to *Mirzā* and *Sāhibā*. The version of the *Hirā* and *Rānjhā* legend by *Wāris Shāh* is considered to be a model of the purest *Pañjābī*. It is immensely popular, and gramophone records of selected passages find a ready sale throughout the country.¹ The contents of the *Sikh Granth*,

Literature.

though written in the *Gurmukhī* character, are mostly in old *Hindī*, only a few of the hymns, though some of these are the most important, being composed in *Pañjābī*. Of late years a small prose *Pañjābī* literature has sprung up with the introduction of the art of printing. The Serampur missionaries translated the New Testament and portions of the Old into Standard *Pañjābī*, and the New Testament alone into *Bhaṭnēri*, a mixed dialect spoken on the borders of *Bikaner*. *Pañjābī* is the vernacular of our *Sikh* soldiers, and is hence found not only in many parts of India, but is even heard in distant China, where *Sikh* police are employed in the Treaty Ports.

The *Sikh Granth*.

Pañjābī spoken abroad.

Of all the languages connected with the Midland, *Pañjābī* is the one which is most free from borrowed words, whether Persian or Sanskrit. While capable of expressing all ideas, it has a charming rustic flavour characteristic of the homely peasantry that employ it. In many respects it bears much the same relationship to *Hindī* that the Lowland Scotch of the poet Burns bears to Southern English.

General character of the language.

Directly south of *Pañjābī* lies *Rājasthānī*, with eighteen and a quarter million speakers, equivalent to about half the population of England and Wales. Just as *Pañjābī* represents the expansion of the Midland language to the north-west, so *Rājasthānī* represents its expansion to the south-west. In the course of this latter expansion, the Midland language, passing through the area of *Rājasthānī*, reaches the sea in Gujarat, where it becomes *Gujarātī*. *Rājasthānī* and *Gujarātī* are hence very closely connected, and are, in fact, little more than variant dialects of one and the same language.² There are many traditions of migration from the Midland into Rajputana and Gujarat, the first mentioned being the foundation of *Dvārakā* in Gujarat, at the time of the war of the *Mahābhārata*. According to Jain tradition, the first Chaulukya ruler of Gujarat came from Kanauj in the Gangetic *Dōāb*, and in the ninth century A.D. a Gurjara-Rājput of *Bhilmāl* or *Bhīnmāl*, in Western Rajputana, conquered that city. The *Rāthāurs* of Marwar say that they came thither from Kanauj in the twelfth century. The *Kachhwāhās* of Jaipur claim to come from Oudh, while another tradition makes the Chaulukyas come from the Eastern Panjab.

Rājasthānī and *Gujarātī*.

¹ An English translation by G. C. Usborne appeared as a supplement to "The Indian Antiquary." The first instalment came out with the number for April 1921, of Volume L.

² The differentiation of *Gujarātī* from the Marwārī dialect of *Rājasthānī* is quite modern. We have poems written in Marwar in the fifteenth century which were composed in the mother language that later on developed into these two forms of speech.

The close political connexion between Rajputana and Gujarat is shown by the historical fact that the Gahlōts of Mewar came thither from the latter tract. That some Rājput clans are descended from Gurjara immigrants is now admitted by most scholars, who maintain that one of their centres of dispersion in Rajputana was in, or near, Mount Abu. These appear to have entered India with the Hūnas and other marauding tribes about the sixth century A.D., and rapidly rose to great power. They were in the main a pastoral people, but had their chiefs and fighting men. When the tribe became of consequence the latter were treated by the Brāhmanas as equivalent to Kshatriyas, and given the title of Rājaputras or Rājputas, *i.e.*, 'Sons of Kings.' Some were even admitted to equality with the Brāhmanas themselves, but the bulk of the tribe which still followed its pastoral avocations remained as a subordinate caste under the title of Gurjaras, or, in modern language, Gūjars.

As its name indicates, Rājasthānī is the language of Rājasthān, in the sense given to that word by Tod. It is spoken in Rajputana and the western portion of Central India, and also in the neighbouring tracts of the Central Provinces, Sind, and the Panjab. To the east it shades off into the Bundēli dialect of Western Hindī in the Gwalior State. To its north it merges into Braj Bhākhā, in the States of Karauli and Bharatpur and in the British District of Gurgaon. To the west it gradually becomes Pañjābī, Lahndā, and Sindhi, through the mixed dialects of the Indian desert, and, directly, Gujarātī in the State of Palanpur. On the south it meets Marāthī, but, this being an Outer language, does not merge into it.

Rājasthān is a tract divided amongst many States and many tribes, and it has hence many closely related dialects. No less than fifteen variations of the local speech have been counted in the Jaipur State alone. Omitting minor local differences, there are some twenty real dialects spoken over the area of which Rājasthānī is the vernacular. An examination of them

Rājasthānī.	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Mārwarī .	6,088,389	...
Central Eastern	2,907,200	...
North-Eastern	1,570,099	...
Mālvi .	4,350,507	...
Nīmāḍī .	474,777	...
Labhānī .	158,500	...
Gujarī .	297,673	...
Unspecified	451,115	...
TOTAL	16,298,260	12,680,562¹

shows that they fall into four main groups, which may be called Mārwarī, the Central Eastern Group (of which the typical dialect is Jaipurī), the North-Eastern Group (of which the typical dialect is Mēwārī), and Mālvi, and these may be taken as the four main dialects of the language. In addition to these we may also notice Nīmāḍī, Labhānī, and Gujarī. By far the most important of the Rājasthānī dialects, whether

we consider the size of the area in which it is vernacular, or the extent it has spread over India, is Mārwarī. Its home is Western Rajputana, including the great States of Marwar, Mewar, Bikaner, and Jaisalmer. It has many varieties, of which the best known are Thālī, or Western Mārwarī of the Desert, which extends well into Sind, the Mēwārī of the Udaipur State, Bikānērī, and the Bāgrī of North-East Bikaner and the adjoining parts of the Panjab. The last is often considered a distinct dialect. The Shēkhāwātī of North-West Jaipur

¹These figures are probably too low. In the Census, some speakers of Rājasthānī were apparently put under Western Hindī.

differs very little from the Mārwarī spoken in the east and centre of the adjoining State of Bikaner. Of the Central Eastern dialects, the most

Central Eastern.
Jaipuri.

important are Jaipuri and Hārautī. Jaipuri, as its name implies, is the language of the State of Jaipur, and we know more about it than we do about any other form of Rājasthānī. At the request of His Highness the Maharajah of Jaipur, an elaborate survey of all the various local dialects employed in the State was carried out by the Rev. G. Macalister, M.A., who has published the results in an admirable little volume.

Hārautī.

Hārautī is the dialect spoken by Hārā Rājput̃s of Bundi and Kota, and extends eastwards over the border of the Gwalior State, where it merges into Bundelī. The principal North-Eastern dialect is Mēwātī or Bīghōtā, the language of the Mēos, whose head-quarters are in the State of Alwar. The Ahīrwātī or Hīrwātī spoken

North Eastern.
Mēwātī.
Ahīrwātī.

to the south and south-west of Delhi is a form of it. As might be expected, the dialects of this group are the forms of Rājasthānī which most nearly approach Western Hindi. In Ahīrwātī we see it merging into the Bāngarū dialect of that language, while in the

Mālvi.

Mēwātī of Alwar it is shading off into Braj Bhākhā. The head-quarters of Mālvi are in the Malwa country round Indore, but it extends over a wide tract. To the east it reaches to Bhopal, where it meets Bundelī, and to the west it is stopped by the Bhil dialects spoken in the hills south of Udaipur. It also occupies the north-western Districts of the Central Provinces. A peculiar form of it, which is much mixed with Mārwarī forms, is called Rāngrī or Rājwarī, and is spoken by Rājput̃s. In North Nimar and the adjoining portion of the Bhopawar Agency of Central India, Mālvi has become so mixed with Khāndēsi and the Bhil languages that it has become a new dialect, called Nīmāḍī, and

Nīmāḍī.

possessing peculiarities of its own. Nīmāḍī can, however, hardly be called a true dialect, in the sense in which we call Mārwarī, Jaipuri, Mēwātī, and Mālvi dialects of Rājasthānī. It is rather a mixed patois made up of several languages, with Mālvi for its basis.

Labhānī or Banjārī is the language of the Banjārās, a well-known tribe of carriers who are found all over Western and Southern India. They are also called Labhānās. In many parts of India they use the language of the people of the country in which they happen to dwell, but in Berar, Bombay, the Central Provinces, the Panjab, United Provinces, and the Central Indian Agency, they have a language of their own, the name of which varies according to the local name of the tribe. Everywhere it is a mixed form of speech, but, throughout, its basis is some western form of Rājasthānī, the other element consisting of borrowings from the speech of the locality where the members of the tribe happen to be found. It may here be mentioned that two other tribal dialects have been found on examination.

Labhānī.

Kakēri.

to be the same as Labhānī. These are Kakēri and Bahrūpiā. Kakēri is the language of the Kakērs, a small tribe of comb-makers who emigrated from Ajmer in Rajputana some two hundred years ago and settled in the District of Jhansi in the United Provinces.

Bahrūpiā.

The Bahrūpiās or Mahtams are now found in the Panjab Districts of Gujrat and Sialkot. They say that they came thither from Rajputana with Rājā Mān Singh on the occasion of his expedition to Kabul in the year 1587, and then settled in the localities where they are now found. It is probable that they were originally a sub-tribe of the Labhānās.

The mention of the Gujarī dialect opens up an interesting period of Indian history.

Gujarī.

We have already seen that the Gurjaras, the ancestors of the present Gūjars, probably entered India in the fifth or sixth century A.D., and that some of their fighting men became recognized as Rājputās. We shall see, in dealing with the Pahārī languages, that in ancient times the present Districts of Kumaun and Garhwal together with the country to their west including the Simla Hills was known as 'Sapādalaksha,' and that this tract was partly occupied by these Gurjaras in the course of their immigration. Thence certain of the Gurjaras descended into the plains, crossed the Gangetic Valley, and entered Mewat, whence they spread over Eastern Rajputana, and acquired its language. In after years certain of these Rajputana settlers again migrated towards the north-west, and invaded the Panjab from the south-east. They left a line of colonists extending from Mewat, up both sides of the Jamna Valley, and thence, following the foot of the Himalaya, right up to the Indus. Where they have settled in the plains they have abandoned their own language, but as we enter the lower hills we invariably come upon a dialect locally known as Gujarī. In each case this can be described as the language of the people nearest the local Gūjars, but badly spoken, as if by foreigners. The farther we go into these sparsely populated hills the more independent do we find this Gujarī, and the less influenced by its surroundings. At length, when we get into the wild hill-country of Swat and Kashmir, we find the nomad Gūjars, here called Gūjurs (if cowherds) or Ajirs (if shepherds), still pursuing their original pastoral avocations and still speaking the descendant of the language that their ancestors brought with them from Mewat. But this shows traces of its long journey. It contains odd phrases and idioms of the Hindōstānī of the Jamna Valley, which were picked up *en route* and carried to the distant hills of Dardistan.

The only dialect of Rājasthānī which has a considerable recognized literature is

Rājasthānī literature.

Mārwārī. Numbers of poems in Old Mārwārī or Dīngal, as it is called for poetical purposes, are in existence, but have not as yet been seriously studied. Besides this there is an enormous mass of literature in other forms of Rājasthānī. I allude to the corpus of Bardic Histories described in Tod's *Rajasthan*, the accomplished author of which was, until the last few years, probably the only European who had read any considerable portion of them. Since then,

of late years a survey of these chronicles has been undertaken by the Asiatic Society of Bengal, under the auspices of the Government of India, and considerable progress had been made in cataloguing them and in publishing texts, when the work was interrupted by the lamented death of Dr. L. P. Tessitori, the learned Italian scholar in whose immediate charge it was. Since then the project has been in abeyance. The most important chronicle of all, the *Prithirāj Rāsan* of Chand Bardāi, has also lately been made available to students by the publication, under the care of the Nāgarī Prachārīnī Sabhā of Benares, of the complete text with an abstract in Hindī. A few episodes of it have also been translated into English by Beames and by Hoernle. It is written in an old form of Western Hindī—not in Rājasthānī—also used by Rājput bards for poetical purposes, and known as Pīngal, and, as we have it now, probably contains spurious additions; but it is nevertheless a wonderful storehouse of Rajputana history and legend. The Serampore Missionaries translated the New Testament into Hārauṭī (a Central Eastern dialect), Ujainī (*i.e.*, Mālvi), Udaipurī (*i.e.*, Mēwārī, a form of Mārwarī), Mārwarī, Jaipurī, and Bikānērī (another form of Mārwarī).

At the time of the great war of the Mahābhārata, the country known as that of the Pāñchālas extended from the river Chambal up to Hardwar at the foot of the Himalaya. The southern portion of it, therefore, coincided with Northern Rajputana. We have already seen¹ that the Pāñchālas seem to have been one of these tribes who were the earliest Aryan invaders of India, and that, therefore, it is probable that their language was one of those which belonged to the Outer Circle of Indo-Aryan languages. If this is true, it is, *a fortiori*, also true of the rest of Rajputana more to the south. The theory also further requires us to conclude that, as the Aryans who spoke the languages of the Inner Sub-branch expanded and became more powerful, they gradually thrust those of the Outer Circle who were to their south, still farther and farther in that direction. In Gujarat, the Inner Aryans broke through the retaining wall of the Outer tribes and reached the sea. There are traditions of several settlements from the Midland in Gujarat, the first mentioned being that of Dvārakā in the time of the Mahābhārata war. The only way into Gujarat from the Midland is through Rajputana. The more direct route is barred by the great Indian desert. Rajputana itself was occupied in comparatively modern times by invaders from Central Hindostan. As previously stated, the Rāṭhāurs have a tradition that they abandoned Kanauj in the Dōāb late in the twelfth century A.D., and then took possession of Marwar. The Kachhwāhās of Jaipur claim to have come from Oudh, and the Sōlankīs from the Eastern Panjab. Gujarat itself was occupied by the Yādavas, members of which tribe still occupy their original seat near Muttra. The Gahlōts of Mewar, on the other hand, are, according to tradition, a reflex wave from Gujarat, driven into the neighbourhood of Chitor after the famous sack of Vallabhi. We thus see that the whole of the country between the Gangetic Dōāb and the sea-coast of Gujarat has at present among its occupants a large number of people who are members of tribes that immigrated from the Midland. These originally found there other Aryan tribes previously settled, who, in their turn, belonged to what I call the Outer Circle, and whom they either absorbed or drove farther to the south, or both. This is exactly borne out by the linguistic conditions of this tract. Rājasthānī and Gujarātī are both, on the whole, languages of the Inner Sub-branch, but they show many traces of forms which are

¹ *Ante*, p. 116.

characteristic of languages of the Outer Band.¹ A few may be mentioned here. In pronunciation, Gujarātī, like Sindhī, Marāṭhī, and Assamese, prefers the sound of *ō* to that of *au*. Thus, the Hindōstānī *chauthā*, fourth, is *chōthō* in Sindhī, Rājasthānī, and Gujarātī. Again, like Sindhī, both Rājasthānī and Gujarātī have a strong preference for cerebral sounds instead of dentals. Like Sindhī and other North-Western languages, vulgar Gujarātī pronounces *s* as *h*. So also do the speakers of certain parts of Rajputana. Like all the eastern languages and Marāṭhī, but unlike the Inner languages, both Rājasthānī and Gujarātī nouns have an oblique form ending in *ā*. Under the head of Sindhī² we have shown how a past participle in *l*, which is peculiarly characteristic of the languages of the Outer Sub-Branch, is also found in Gujarātī. Finally, in the conjugation of verbs, both Gujarātī and Rājasthānī, like Lahndā, have a future whose characteristic is the letter *s*.

Rājasthānī uses the Nāgarī character for its literature. For ordinary purposes, it has a corrupt form of that script allied to the *Laṇḍā* of the Panjab. This is known as *Mahājani*, or the alphabet of the mercantile class, and is well-nigh illegible to everyone except its writer. It omits nearly all the vowels, and the stories about the consequent misreadings are among the most popular chestnuts of Indian folklore.

Rājasthānī, in the form of *Mārwarī*, can be heard all over India. There is hardly a town where the 'thrifty denizen of the sands of Western and Northern Rajputana has not found his way to fortune, from the petty grocer's shop in a Deccan village to the most extensive banking and broking connexion in the commercial capitals of both East and West India.'

¹ In the Baroda Census Report for 1921 (pp. 259ff.) Mr. Satyavrata Mukerjee criticizes the theories enunciated above, and maintains that 'the present position of languages like Gujarātī is not so much the result of the superior impact of the Madhyadēśa on the Outer Band, as of the reverse.' I am not convinced by his arguments, but, as a question of pure philology, the matter is not of great importance. He agrees that both Rājasthānī and Gujarātī are mixed forms of speech, possessing partly the characteristics of languages of the Outer Band, and partly those of the languages of the Midland; but when he would on this account class Gujarātī with Eastern Hindi, as a member of the Mediate Sub-Branch, I must part company with him. As he would arrange the Indo-Aryan languages, we have, first, in the centre, Western Hindi, the language of the Midland. Surrounding it in a ring are a number of mixed languages,—on the east, Eastern Hindi; on the south, Rājasthānī (with Gujarātī); on the west, Pañjābī; and, on the north, the Pahārī languages of the Himalaya. These are all intermediate between Western Hindi and the Outer languages, forming a bridge between the two. Round and outside these mixed languages, we have, again, a ring of Outer languages,—Bihārī, Oriyā, Marāṭhī, Sindhī, and Lahndā. There is thus a centre, surrounded by a band of mixed languages, and that again surrounded by an outer band. If we give the name 'Intermediate languages' to the mixed band, I offer no objection. Indeed, on various occasions, when not writing for scientific publications, I have used the same arrangement myself. It has the advantage of being systematic and of being easily comprehended. But the term 'Mediate Sub-Branch' has in these pages been given a different connotation, and one which compels us to include under that name Eastern Hindi, and Eastern Hindi alone. Under that heading it is impossible to include such languages as Rājasthānī and Gujarātī. It is true that, like them, Eastern Hindi is to a certain extent a bridge between Western Hindi and an Outer language, but it is not a mixed language like the other two. It has had an independent growth from prehistoric times, and has developed a grammar altogether different whether we compare it with Western Hindi or with any Outer language. On the other hand, the grammars of Rājasthānī and of Gujarātī are in their essence the same as that of Western Hindi. Particular postpositions or terminations may vary, but the ground basis of the three languages is identical in all. That there are also in Gujarātī certain peculiarities inherited from the language of the Outer Sub-Branch which it superseded cannot be denied, and it is the presence of these which makes us insist on its mixed character. But neither here nor in Rājasthānī has there been such a development on independent lines as would entitle us to look upon either as a member of the Mediate Sub-Branch. This is not the place to enter into the details of the argument, and I therefore content myself with referring those interested to the conjugation of the verb, on the one hand in Eastern Hindi, and, on the other hand, in Western Hindi, Rājasthānī and Gujarātī. A comparison of the two systems will at once show the impossibility of putting Rājasthānī or Gujarātī into the same linguistic group as Eastern Hindi.

² P. 140, *ante*.

As already stated, Gujarātī is closely related to Rājasthānī. So late as the fifteenth century¹ Marwar and Gujarat had one common language, which has since then split up into these two languages and

Gujarātī.

of which both originally formed little differing dialects.

Where spoken.

Gujarātī is spoken in the British Province of Gujarat and in Baroda and the other neighbouring Indian States. It extends south along the coast of the Arabian Sea to about Daman, where there is a mixed population, some speaking Marāṭhī, and some Gujarātī. The two languages have no intermediate dialect. On the north, it shades off into Sindhī, through the Kachchhī dialect of that language, although in Cutch (Kachchh) itself the standard dialect is employed for official and literary purposes. Still on the north, but to the east of Sindhī, it meets Mārwarī, into which, a little north of the Ran of Cutch, it gradually merges. On its east, it has the hill country, in which Bhilī and Khāndēśī are spoken, and on its south it has Marāṭhī. The Bhil languages and Mārwarī, like Gujarātī, belong to the Inner Sub-Branch, and into these Gujarātī merges naturally, and without difficulty. The case of Sindhī is somewhat peculiar in this respect. Sindhī is an Outer language, and we have seen that the old language once spoken in Gujarat, but which has been superseded by the modern Gujarātī, itself also belonged to the Outer Sub-Branch, and must have been closely related to Sindhī. I have said that Gujarātī merges into Sindhī through the Kachchhī dialect of that language. This is only partly true. Kachchhī, in its pure form, is not an intermediate dialect between the two languages. It is a form of Sindhī, with a varying mixture of Gujarātī words borrowed from Gujarātī-speaking neighbours. It is a mixed rather than an intermediate form of speech. The peninsula of Cutch is inhabited not only by Kachchhis but also by numerous immigrants from Rajputana and Gujarat. These latter retain their own respective languages, but corrupt them, in their turn, by borrowings from Kachchhī, so that the whole peninsula is polyglot, some of the population speaking what may be called a mongrel Sindhī, while others speak a mongrel Rājasthānī or a mongrel Gujarātī. In popular speech, all these mongrel dialects are lumped together under the general name of 'Kachchhī,' and on this understanding alone can it be said that Gujarātī merges into Sindhī through Kachchhī. As regards Marāṭhī, lying to the south of Gujarātī, the matter is different. Here there is no merging, even in the sense in which we have used the term in regard to Kachchhī. There is difference of race, and the country on the borderline between the two forms of speech is bilingual. The two nationalities are geographically mixed, but each preserves its own tongue, the Gujarātīs speaking their own Inner Gujarātī, and the Marāṭhās speaking their own Outer Marāṭhī.

The only true dialectic variation of Gujarātī consists in the difference between the speech of the uneducated and that of the educated. That of the latter is the standard form of the language as taught in the grammars. That of the former differs from the standard mainly in pronunciation, although it possesses a few contracted verbal forms which are ignored by the literary

Dialects.

¹ In the year 1455-6 A.D. a poem called the *Kāṇhaḍādeva-prabandha* was written by a poet of Jhalor in the Marwar State. In the year 1912 there was a lively controversy in Gujarat as to whether this was written in old Gujarātī or in old Mārwarī. Really it is in neither, but is in the mother language, which in later years differentiated into these two forms of speech.

dialect. The differences of pronunciation are nearly the same over the whole Gujarātī tract, but, as a rule, though they are the same in kind, they are much less prominent in South Gujarat, and become more and more prominent as we go north. It is of interest to note that in this pronunciation followed by the uneducated rural classes, we meet over and over again relics of the old Outer language superseded by modern Gujarātī. Such are, to quote two examples, the tendency to pronounce *s* as *h*, and the inability to distinguish between cerebral and dental letters, and there are many others. The Pārsis and the Musalmāns are generally credited with special dialects, but in pronunciation and inflexion these generally follow the colloquial Gujarātī of their neighbours. Most Musalmāns in Gujarat speak Hindōstānī, but when they do speak Gujarātī their language is noticeable for the entire disregard of the distinction between cerebrals and dentals. Here they only carry a local dialectic peculiarity to excess. In other respects, the Gujarātī of Pārsis and of Musalmāns mainly differs from the ordinary colloquial language of the uneducated in its vocabulary, which borrows freely from Persian and (generally through Persian) from Arabic. Natives of the country give names (based upon caste-titles or upon the names of localities) such as Nāgarī, the language of the Nāgar Brāhmans, or as Charōtari, the language of the Charōtar tract on the banks of the Mahī, to various sub-divisions of these dialects, but the differences are so trifling that they do not deserve special mention, although the more important have been fully dealt with in the pages of the Survey. From the nature of the case it is impossible to give figures for the number of people speaking any one of these dialects or sub-dialects. We can say how many people belong to a certain tribe, or how many live in a certain tract, but we cannot say how many of them speak the standard dialect and how many speak the dialect of the uneducated. According to the estimates of the Survey, based on the Census of 1891, the number of speakers of all kinds of Gujarātī was 10,646,227 (about the same as the population of Persia), the corresponding figures of the Census of 1921 being 9,551,992.

We are fortunate in possessing a remarkable series of documents connecting the modern Gujarātī with the Apabhramśa from which it is descended. The famous grammarian Hēmachandra (fl. 12th cent. A.D.), whose work is at the present day one of our great authorities on the various Prakrits, adorns the chapter dealing with Apabhramśa with numerous quotations from poems in the literary form of that language. Hēmachandra himself was a native of Gujarat, and, while the examples given by him vary in dialect, some of them are almost the same as the old language from which are sprung the modern Mārwarī and the modern Gujarātī. As for the old Outer language which in ancient times was superseded by the parent of modern Gujarātī, we know very little about it. It is probable that it was intermediate between the ancestor of modern Sindhī and the ancestor of modern Marāṭhī, and that we find traces of it not only in modern Gujarātī, but also in the Kōṅkaṇī dialect of Marāṭhī. But Gujarat has been so overrun from the earliest times by nations hailing from many different parts of the world, that there is little hope of our being able to resuscitate any fragments of it with certainty. The present Gujarat nation is curiously composite, Greeks, Bactrians, Hurs, and Scythians; Gurjaras, Jādējas, and Kāṭhīs; Pārsis and Arabs, not to speak of soldiers of fortune from the countries of the West, have all contributed, together with the numerous Indo-Aryan

immigrations, to form the population. In such a mixture it is wonderful that even the traces of the old Outer language that we have succeeded in identifying have survived.

Gujarātī has not a large literature, but it is larger than that with which it has sometimes been credited. The earliest, and at the same time the most famous, poet whose works have come down to us in a connected form was Narasiṃha Mehetō (or Narsingh Mehtā), who lived in the fifteenth century A.D. His poems, and those of a great number of later writers, have been collected and published in a poetical encyclopædia entitled the *Bṛihat Kāvya Dōhana*. There is also a considerable series of bardic chronicles, similar to those which we have described under the head of Rājasthānī, on which is based Forbes's well-known *Rās-mālā*. Then, again, in addition to the long list of poets and poetesses whose lays are enshrined in the *Bṛihat Kāvya Dōhana*, there were writers on grammar and poetics. Of special interest for the history of the language are two works, the *Mugdhāvabōdha-mauktika* (1394 A.D.) of an anonymous writer, and the *Kriyā-ratna-samuchchaya* (1410 A.D.) of Guṇaratna. These works are Sanskrit grammars for beginners, and as such are of little value. But they are written in the Gujarātī of those days, and each Sanskrit grammatical form is given its equivalent in that language. Between them they thus furnish us with a systematic account of the grammar of the Gujarātī of the early fifteenth century. No such document exists for any other modern Indo-Aryan language. Through them we are able to trace the history of the growth of the Gujarātī tongue from the earliest Vedic times without a break, through Sanskrit, Prakrit, Apabhraṃśa, and the parent of Rājasthānī and Gujarātī, down to the articles of a Pārsī newspaper of the present day. We have grammatical documents for each stage of the long development.

The Nāgarī character was formerly used in Gujarat for writing books. Carey's translation of the New Testament, published at the beginning of the last century, was printed in that alphabet. For less important documents, that modification of the Nāgarī character known in Upper India as Kaithī, and very generally used there for similar purposes, was also employed. This is now the official character of Gujarat, as it is of Bihārī, and all books and papers in the language are printed in it.

Closely allied to Gujarātī and Western Rājasthānī are two important groups of dialects, each of which is entitled to the dignity of being considered a separate language. They are Bhilī and Khāndēśī, the latter being also called Ahirānī or Dhēḍ Gujarī. Bhilī is spoken in the range of hills between Ajmer and Mount Abu. Thence, in numerous dialects, it covers the hill country dividing Gujarat from Rajputana and Central India, as far south as the Satpura Range, and on the way it crosses the Narbada, up which it extends for a considerable distance. As its name implies it is the language of the Bhils who inhabit this wild tract. South of the Satpuras lie the District of Khandesh and the Burhanpur Tahsil of Nimar, the latter forming a continuation of the Khandesh plain. Here Khāndēśī is spoken, and still further south, in the hill country leading up from Surat to Nasik, are found a number of wild tribes, such as Naikīs, Dhōḍiās, Gām^aṭīs, and Chōdh^aris, who employ dialects closely connected with it. Both Bhilī and Khāndēśī show traces of a non-Aryan basis, which are too few to be certainly identified. This basis may have been

Muṇḍā or it may have been Dravidian,—perhaps more probably the former,—but has been completely overlaid by an Aryan superstructure, and they are both now thoroughly Aryan languages. Bhilī may be looked upon as a bridge between Gujarātī and Rājasthānī, and might, with propriety, be looked upon as an eastern dialect of Gujarātī. The dialects appear under many names (no less than twenty-eight varieties have been examined in the Survey), but they are all essentially the same form of speech. Like some of the colloquial forms of Gujarātī it shows several points of agreement with the Outer languages of the North-West and even with Dardic.¹ As we follow these dialects southwards, we find them borrowing more and more from the neighbouring Marāṭhī, but this is borrowing only. It does not affect the structure of the language any more than the borrowing of Arabic or Persian words affects the structure of Hindōstānī. Khāndēśī, with its connected dialects, is of a similar character, but is more mixed with Marāṭhī, which we find invading to a small extent the grammatical structure. On this account, and also because it is chiefly spoken in the Bombay Presidency, it is treated as an independent language, but, from the point of view of strict philology, it should not be separated from Bhilī. Besides the Bhilī spoken in its

	Survey.	Census of 1921	
Bhilī	2,691,701	1,855,617	proper home, we also meet Bhil dialects in
Khāndēśī and dialects.	1,253,066	213,272 ²	localities where we might little suspect them.

In far Orissa and the Bengal District of Midnapur, more than a thousand miles from the true home of the race, the Linguistic Survey has discovered a wandering tribe, known as Siyālgīrs, who speak a distinctively

Bhil dialect. They perhaps left their own country for their country's good, for they are described as a tribe of thieving propensities, who came to Bengal some six or seven generations ago, probably as jetsam from the tide of Marāṭhā invasion. The Bāwariās, a wild hunting tribe found in the Panjab, moreover, speak a form of Bhilī which is known as Bāorī.

We must now leave Western India and consider the three Pahārī languages. The word 'Pahārī' means 'of or belonging to the mountain,' and is used as a convenient name for the three groups of Indo-Aryan dialects spoken in the lower ranges of the Himalaya, from Nepal in the east to Bhadrawah in the west. Before going into details it is advisable to state briefly what appears to have been the linguistic history of this tract. The earliest inhabitants of which we can mark any traces must have been people speaking a language akin to the ancestor of the modern Muṇḍā languages. These were superseded or conquered by Tibeto-Burmans who crossed the Himalaya from the north, and settled on its southern face. In this way the tract became inhabited by people speaking Tibeto-Burman languages, and so it has continued to the present day. But the original Muṇḍās were not entirely swept out of existence, and the languages, although belonging to the Tibeto-Burman Sub-Family, incorporated many Muṇḍā idioms, which can still be easily recognized.³ In later times, these Tibeto-Burmans were not left isolated. The plains of India immediately to their south were inhabited by Aryans, and these worked northwards into the

¹ It is quite possible that a form of Paisāchī Prakrit was once spoken in the neighbourhood of the Bhil country, although the head-quarters of the language were in the north-west Panjab. See the remarks on p. 109.

² Apparently many speakers of Khāndēśī have been classed as speaking Bhilī or Marāṭhī.

³ *Vide ante*, pp. 35 & 55ff.

Himalaya, and settled in the more accessible valleys, bringing with them Aryan languages and civilization. Thus, in Nepal, before the Gōrkhā invasion, we find that a language akin to the Maithilī dialect of Bihārī, spoken immediately to the south, was used as a court language and we even have a play written in that language still surviving.¹ But another, and, from the point of view of linguistics, more important infusion of Aryan languages came from the west.

West of the present kingdom of Nepal, in Kumaun, Garhwal, and the hills round Simla, there is a sub-Himalayan hill-tract known in Sanskrit times as 'Sapādalaksha,' or '(the country of) a lākh and a quarter (of hills).' The modern equivalent of this word,—*sawā lākh*,—still survives in the name of the well-known Siwalik Hills, south of Garhwal in the Saharanpur District. At the present-day the bulk of the agricultural population of this Sapādalaksha consists, in the west, of Kanēts, and, in the east, of members of the Khas tribe. The Kanēts are divided into two clans, one called Khasiyā, which claims to be pure, and the other called Rāo (*i.e.*, Rājā or Rājput), which admits that it is of impure birth. On the other hand, the chiefs of the country all claim to be of Rājput descent. We thus see that the whole of the modern Sapādalaksha contains many people who call themselves Khas or Khasiyā. That these represent the Khasās, Khasas, or Khasīras of

Kάσσιοι. Sanskrit literature and the Κάσσιοι of Greek geographers cannot be doubted. Like the Piśāchas, from whose speech the modern Dardic languages are descended, they were said to be descended from Kaśyapa, the founder of Kashmir. In the *Rājataranginī*, the famous history of that country, they are frequently referred to as a thorn in the side of its rulers, and in the *Mahābhārata* they are often mentioned as a people of the north-west, and even as closely connected with the Piśāchas, and with the people of Kashmir. They were Aryans, but had fallen outside the Aryan pale of purity. Other Sanskrit authorities, such as the *Harivamśa*, the *Purāṇas*, and the various lawbooks, all agree in placing them in the north-west. In later times they spread eastwards over the whole of Sapādalaksha, and conquered and absorbed the more fertile tracts, where we find them at the present day. Still later,—about the sixteenth century,—they advanced, in the Gōrkhā invasion, into Nepal, and mixing with the Tibeto-Burmans or Muṇḍās whom they found there, became the Khas or ruling tribe of that country. We have seen that in ancient times these Khasas were associated with the Piśāchas, and originally they must, like them, have spoken a Dardic language, for traces of that form of speech are readily found over the whole Sapādalaksha tract, diminishing in strength as we go eastwards.

In dealing with Rājasthānī² reference has been made to the important part the Gurjaras, or modern Gūjars, have played in the history of Rajputana. These people seem to have appeared in India first about the fifth or sixth century A.D. One branch of them occupied this Sapādalaksha and amalgamated with the Khas population that they found *in situ*. In Western Sapādalaksha they became the Rāo sept of the Kanēts, but were not admitted to equality of caste with the older Khasiyā Kanēts. These Gurjaras were those who took to cultivation, or who adhered to their pastoral pursuits. The fighting men were, as we have seen, admitted into the Rājput caste. From Sapādalaksha, Gurjaras migrated across the Gangetic Valley, to Mewat, and thence settled over Eastern Rajputana. In later

¹ The *Harīschandraṇṭīya*, edited by Conrady in 1891.

² Pp. 171 and 173.

years, under the pressure of Musalmān rule, many of these Rājput̃s remigrated to Sapādalaksha and again settled there. In fact there was continual intercourse between Sapādalaksha and Rajputana. Finally, as we have seen, Nepal was conquered by people of the Khas tribe, who were accompanied by many of these Gurjara-Rājput̃s. It has long been recognized that all the Pahārī languages are at the present day closely allied to Rājasthānī, and the above historical sketch shows how this has come about.¹

The three Pahārī languages. Survey. Census of 1921.

Eastern Pahārī	143,721	279,715
Central Pahārī	1,107,612	3,853 ²
Western Pahārī	853,468	1,633,915
Unspecified	...	54
TOTAL	2,104,801	1,917,537

The Pahārī Group of the Inner Sub-Branch of the Indo-Aryan languages consists of three groups of dialects, which may be called the Eastern Pahārī, the Central Pahārī, and the Western Pahārī languages respectively.

Eastern Pahārī is commonly called 'Nēpālī' or 'Naipālī' by Europeans, but this name is hardly suitable, as it is not the principal language of Nepal. In that State the principal languages are Tibeto-Burman, the most important being Nēwārī, the name of which is also derived from the word 'Nēpāl.' Other names for Eastern Pahārī are 'Parbatiyā' or 'the Hill language,' 'Gōrkhālī' or 'the language of the Gōrkhās,' and 'Khas Kurā' or 'the language of the Khas tribe.' It is not a language of British India, the homes of its speakers being in the State of Nepal, for which no census figures are available. The 143,721 speakers recorded in the Survey estimates refer to natives of Nepal who have come temporarily or permanently into British India. Many of them are soldiers in our Gōrkhā regiments.

The introduction of this Aryan language into Nepal is a matter of modern history. In the early part of the 16th century certain Rājput̃s of Mewar, under pressure of Musalmān attacks, migrated north, and settled among their Khas and Gurjara relatives in Garhwal, Kumaun, and Western Nepal. In 1559 A.D. a party of these conquered the town of Gōrkhā (say 70 miles north-west of Kāthmāṇḍū). In 1768 Prithvī Nārāyaṇa Shāh of Gōrkhā made himself master of the whole of Nepal, founded the present Gōrkhālī dynasty, and introduced as the language of the court the mixed Rājasthānī and Khas tongue that he had brought from Gōrkhā. This has since been the Aryan language of Nepal, superseding the older dialect, akin to the old Maithilī, which had previously been the form of Aryan speech used in that country. The bulk of the population of Nepal being Tibeto-Burman, the Khas conquerors have been in a minority, and there has been a mixture not only of race but of language. Eastern Pahārī has borrowed some of its vocabulary and even some of its grammatical idioms from Tibeto-Burman languages, and although distinctly related to Rājasthānī, it now presents a somewhat mixed character. Not only many words but special phases of its grammar, such as the use of the agent case before *all* tenses of a transitive verb, and the employment of a complete honorific conjugation, are plainly borrowed from the speech of the surrounding Tibeto-Burmans. These changes in the speech are increasing with every decade, and certain Tibeto-Burman peculiarities have come into the language within the memory of men alive at the present day.

¹ The whole question is worked out in detail in the Introduction to Volume IX, Part iv, of the Survey. It is impossible here to give more than the general results.

² In the Census, most of the speakers of Central Pahārī have been shown under Western Hindi. It is impossible to adjust the figures.

Eastern Pahārī being spoken in a mountainous country has no doubt many dialects.

Dialects.

Into one of these, Pālpā, spoken in Western Nepal, the Serampore missionaries in the early part of the last century made a version of the New Testament, and as Nepal is independent territory to which Europeans have little access, that is our one source of information concerning it. The standard dialect is that of Kāṭhmāṇḍū, and in this there is a small printed literature, all modern. The dialect of Eastern Nepal has of late years been adopted by the missionaries at Darjiling as the standard for a grammar and for their translations of the Bible. Eastern Pahārī is written and printed in the Nāgarī character.

Written character.

Central Pahārī includes the dialects spoken in Eastern Sapādalaksha, *i.e.*, in the British Districts of Kumaun and Garhwal and in the State of Garhwal. It has two well-known dialects,—Kumaunī, spoken in Kumaun (including the hill station of Naini Tal), and Garhwālī, spoken in British and independent Garhwal and the country round the hill station of Mussoorie. These dialects vary from place to place, each pargana having a distinct form of speech, each with a local name of its own. Neither of these main dialects has any literary history. The Serampore missionaries published translations of the New Testament into each of them, and other versions of portions of the Scriptures have lately been made into Garhwālī. During the past few years a few books have been written in Kumaunī, and one or two in Garhwālī. So far as I have seen, both dialects are written and printed in the Nāgarī character.

Central Pahārī.	Survey.	Census of 1921.
Kumaunī	436,788	...
Garhwālī	670,824	...

TOTAL 1,107,612 3,853¹

Western Pahārī is the name of the large number of connected dialects spoken in Western Sapādalaksha, *i.e.*, in the hill country of which Simla, the summer head-quarters of the Government of India, is the political centre. These dialects have no standard form, and, beyond a few folk-epics, no literature. The area over which they are spoken extends from the Jaunsar-Bawar tract of the United Provinces, and thence, in the Province of the Panjab, over the State of Sirmaur, the Simla Hills, Kulu, and the States of Mandi and Chamba, up to, and including, the Bhadrawah Jagir of Kashmir. The language has numerous dialects, all differing considerably among themselves, but nevertheless possessing many common features. We may conveniently group them under the nine

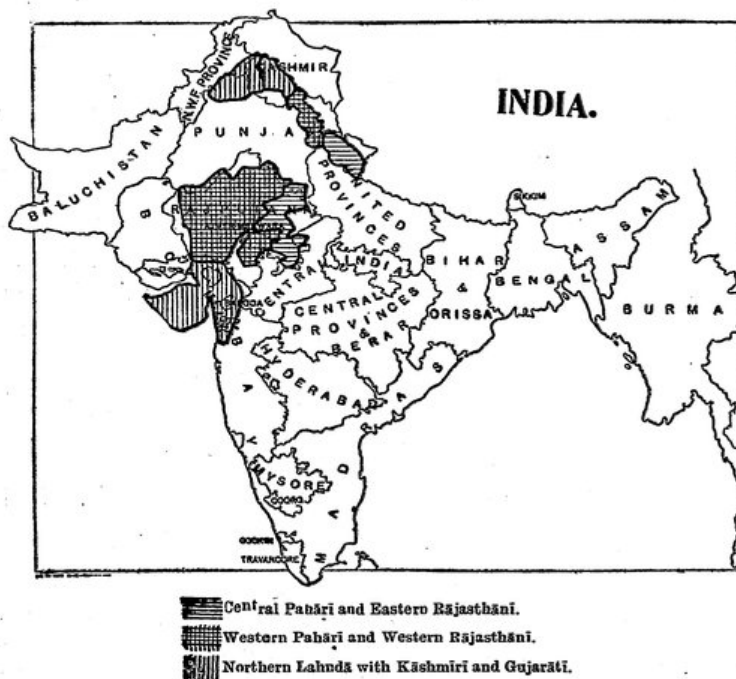
Western Pahārī.	Survey.	Census of 1921.	heads given on the margin. Of these,
Jaunsārī	47,437	427,702	Jaunsārī is the language spoken in the Jaunsar-Bawar tract of the District of Dehra Dun in the United Provinces, wedged in between Garhwal and the Panjab State of Sirmaur. It is a transition dialect between Garhwālī and Sirmaurī, but is much mixed with the Western Hindi spoken to its south in the rest of Dehra Dun. Sirmaurī includes three well-marked dialects, and is
Sirmaurī	124,562		
Baghatī	22,195		
Kiūṭhālī	188,763	126,793	
Satlaj Group	38,893		
Kulu Group	84,631	237,934	
Mandi Group	212,184		
Chamba Group	109,286	139,262	
Bhadrawah Group	25,517		
Unspecified	702,224	
TOTAL	853,468	1,633,915	

¹ See note * on p. 181.

Jaunsāri spoken in the State of Sirmaur and in the south of the State of Jubbal. It is closely connected with Jaunsāri, but north of the River Giri and in Jubbal it begins to approximate to Kiūṭhali. Sirmauri lies west of Jaunsāri, and still further to the west we have Baghāṭi, these three forming a continuous band forming the southern limit of the Western Pahāri dialects. Baghāṭi is the dialect of the State of Baghat and the neighbouring tracts, and within its area lie the military stations of Kasauli and Dagshai. It is a transition dialect between Sirmauri and Kiūṭhali. Kiūṭhali is the language of the central portion of the Simla Hill States, and is spoken round Simla itself and in the State of Keonthal, from the latter of which it takes its name. It varies greatly from State to State, and from Pargana to Pargana, so that no less than seven forms of it have been recorded in the Survey. North of Simla lies Kulu, separated from it by the River Satlaj, and on each bank of that river there are a couple of dialects forming a bridge between the Simla dialects and Kuḷui. These form the Satlaj group given on the margin of p. 182. In Kulu there are three dialects, Kuḷui proper and two others. West of Kulu, and also lying to the north of the Simla Hill States, are the States of Suket and, to its north, Mandi. Here we have the dialects of the Mandi group. There are four of these, of which the most important are Maṇḍēāli and Sukēti. West of Mandi lies the Panjab District of Kangra, in which the language is a form of Pañjābī. We need not therefore be surprised to find that the dialects of the Mandi Group represent southern Kuḷui merging into Pañjābī. North-west of Kulu and north of Kangra lies the State of Chamba. Here there are four dialects, of which the most important is Chamēāli, the principal language of the State. Another dialect is Gādi, spoken by the Gaddis, a pastoral tribe inhabiting the Bharmaur Wizārat of the State, on the Kulu frontier. The speakers are descendants of immigrants from the Panjab plains, who took refuge here from Musalmān oppression. They now speak a form of Chamēāli, but with the peculiarity that they sound every *sh*-sound like *ch* in the Scottish 'loch.' In the extreme north of the Chamba State lies the beautiful but isolated mountain tract of Pangi. Here the dialect is called Paṅgwāli, also a form of Chamēāli, but beginning to show signs of transition into Kāshmīrī. Finally, north-west of Chamba proper and of Pangi, lie the Bhadrawah Jagir and the Padar District, both belonging to Kashmir. Beyond them lies Kashmir proper, of which the language is Kāshmīrī. It is therefore to be expected that the dialects of Bhadrawah and Padar should be transition forms of speech between Chamēāli and Kāshmīrī, and such in fact is the case. The dialects of this tract form the Bhadrawah group, and are three in number, viz., Bhadrawāhī, with its sub-variety Bhaḷēsi, and Pādarī. This concludes a rapid survey of the numerous Western Pahāri dialects, and we have been able to trace the gradual change from the Khas dialects of Central Pahāri through the Simla Hills into the semi-Kāshmīrī of Bhadrawah and Padar.

Western Pahārī is written in the Ṭakkārī alphabet, already referred to as the alphabet used for the Ḍogrī dialect of Pañjābī.¹ It has most of the disadvantages of Laṇḍā, being very imperfectly supplied with signs for the vowels. Medial short vowels are usually altogether omitted, and medial long vowels are represented by characters which are also used for initial vowels, whether long or short. In the case of Chamṛāḷī, the character has been supplied with the missing signs, and books have been printed in it that are as legible and correct as anything in Nāgarī.

For the present excluding from consideration the case of Eastern Pahārī, as a modern importation into Nepal, we can now say that the lower Himalaya from Kumaun on the east to the Afghān frontier on the west is occupied by four languages,—on the east by Central Pahārī, to the west of that by Western Pahārī, and finally in the extreme west by Kāshmīrī and the northern dialects of Lahndā. We have seen that all these forms of speech show signs of ancient connexion with the Dardic languages, and it is interesting to observe that they are also more closely related than has hitherto been suspected with the languages of Rajputana and Gujarat. Across the Gangetic Valley and, further west, across the Panjab, facing these sub-Himalayan languages, we also find a triad of well defined forms of speech. Facing Central Pahārī, across Western Hindi, lies Eastern Rājasthānī; facing Western Pahārī, across Pañjābī, lie Mārwarī and the connected dialects of Western Rājasthānī; and facing Kāshmīrī and Northern Lahndā, across Southern Lahndā and Sindhī, and to the south-west of Western Rājasthānī, lies Gujarātī. The relative positions are shown in the accompanying map. But this parallelism is not merely geographic. It extends also to the peculiarities of the respective languages. Each language agrees with that facing it, and differs from its neighbours in remarkable characteristics. Thus, Central Pahārī agrees with its *vis-à-vis*, Eastern Rājasthānī, in having the genitive postposition *kō*, and the verb substantive derived from the root *achh-*, while in the Western Pahārī of the Simla Hills the termination of



the genitive is *rō* as in the dialects of Western Rājasthānī, and one of the verbs substantive (*ā, is*) is probably of the same origin as the Western Rājasthānī *hai*. We next come, in the southern triad, to Gujarātī. Here the genitive termination is *nō*,

¹ *Ante*, p. 170.

and the verb substantive belongs to the *achh*-group. The corresponding languages of the north are Kāshmīrī and Northern Lahndā. In the latter the genitive termination is *nō*, but the verb substantive differs from that of Gujarātī, although the closely connected Kāshmīrī forms it from the same root, *achh*-. Moreover, Gujarātī also agrees with all the Lahndā dialects in one very remarkable point, the formation of the future by means of a sibilant,¹ a peculiarity not found elsewhere in the Indo-Aryan languages. We thus find that right along the Lower Himalaya, from the Indus to Nepal, there are three groups of dialects, each agreeing respectively, in striking points, and in the same order, with Gujarātī, Western Rājasthānī, and Eastern Rājasthānī respectively.

¹ Lahndā *kuṭṭsē*, Gujarātī *kuṭṣē*, he will strike.

CHAPTER XVI.—UNCLASSED LANGUAGES.

There remain a few Indian languages which do not fall under any of the heads previously described. These are the Gipsy dialects, Burushaskī, and Andamanese.

The word 'Gipsy' used in this connexion is employed in its purely conventional sense of 'Vagrant,' and should not be taken as in any way suggesting connexion with the Romani Chals of Europe and Western Asia. Many forms of speech employed by vagrant tribes have already been dealt with in the preceding pages, as it was possible to identify them as definite dialects of recognized languages. Such are the Korava and Kaikāḍī dialects of Tamil, the Kurumba dialect of Kanarese, and the Vaḍarī dialect of Telugu. These are all Dravidian through and through. On the other hand, as entirely Indo-Aryan, we have had such dialects as the Labhānī, Kakērī, and Bahrūpiā forms of Rājasthānī, the Tārīmūki or Ghisādī form of Gujarātī, and a number of Bhil dialects such as Bāori, Chāraṇī, Habūrā, Pār'dhī, and Siyālgīrī. About these there has been no difficulty as regards classification. It is sufficient to note here that these dialects are either Dravidian, or belong to the mutually closely connected Indo-Aryan languages, Rājasthānī, Gujarātī, or Bhilī.

The remainder fall into two groups, *viz.*, dialects proper, and argots. The figures for these, as given on the margin, must be taken with considerable reserve, for we know that there are several Gipsy tribes¹ which have escaped the nets both of the Survey and of the Census, and also that, for those that have been recorded, considerable numbers have avoided enumeration. Most of the tribes are more or less disreputable, and the speakers of the dialects are not, as a rule, anxious to proclaim their associations.

Subject to the above remarks, we may enumerate the true Gipsy dialects as on the margin. It has been pointed out above that the Gipsy languages which we have been able to classify are either dialects of well-known Dravidian languages or are forms of Rājasthānī or the closely connected Gujarātī or Bhilī. The unclassified Gipsy languages, on the other hand, are all mixtures of various forms of speech, but they possess one characteristic in common—that they nearly all seem to have a Dravidian basis, and that the speakers seem to have first come under the influence of Indo-Aryan tongues in or near Rajputana and the Bhil country. There each mixed language took its original shape or shapes, and as the tribes wandered thence over India it became extensively corrupted by the speech of the various localities in which the speakers respectively found themselves.² If this account is accepted, we can further look upon the classified Gipsy languages from the same point of view. Those which are now Dravidian dialects, are those which have preserved their original form with little or no contamination, while those that are Indo-Aryan are dialects of tribes which had their head-quarters for so long a period in the Rajputana

Gipsy dialects.	Survey.
Dialects Proper . . .	9,748
Argots . . .	91,923
TOTAL	101,671

True Gipsy dialects.	Survey.
Pendhāri . . .	1,250
Bhāmṭī . . .	14
Beldāri . . .	5,140
Ōḍki . . .	2,814
Lāḍi . . .	560
Machariā . . .	30
TOTAL	9,748

¹ The most important of these is that of the Chūbrās, a sketch of whose argot has been given by Dr. Grahame Bailey in his "Notes on Punjabi Dialects."

² The one important exception is Pendhāri which, as we shall see, has a history of its own.

country that they had altogether given up the Dravidian language of their original home, and had fully adopted that of their hosts.

The one important exception to the above given general statement as to the probable origin of Gipsy dialects is furnished by *Peṇḍhārī*.

Peṇḍhārī. This is the language of a tribe of no common race, and of no common religion, represented by the 'Pindarees' of Indian history. These were plundering bands of freebooters, who welcomed to their ranks outlaws and broken men of all parts of India—Afghāns, Marāṭhās, Jatts, and so forth, and who were finally broken up by the Marquis of Hastings in 1817.

At the present day they are represented by groups of people scattered over Central India, the Bombay Presidency, and elsewhere. They have generally adopted the languages of their respective surroundings, but in parts of Bombay they still have a home-language which is called by the name of the tribe. As may be expected from the people's origin, this is a jargon—a mixture of rough *Dakhinī Hindōstānī*, *Marāṭhī*, and *Rājasthānī*. Further description is unnecessary.

The *Bhāmṭās* are a criminal tribe, found in the Central Provinces and Southern India. They are not proper vagrants, but live in villages which they use as head-quarters for their thieving expeditions. Most of them speak the *Vaḍarī* form of Telugu,¹ but those of *Bijāpur* speak Kanarese, and a few of them have been reported from the Central Provinces as having a home-language called *Bhāmṭī*. It is a broken jargon, a mixture of *Dakhinī Hindōstānī* and the *Jaipurī* form of *Rājasthānī*.

The *Bēldārs* are a tribe of earth-workers, scattered over the greater part of India. Most of them have adopted the language of their respective surroundings, but a language called *Bēldārī* has been reported from *Jaisalmir* in *Rajputana*, the Central Provinces, and the Bombay Presidency. It is a mixture of several languages, the principal being Eastern *Rājasthānī* and *Marāṭhī*, but the relative proportions of each constituent naturally vary according to locality.

Closely connected with *Bēldārī* is *Ōḍkī*, the language of the *Ōḍs*, or *Waddars*, a wandering tribe of earth-workers. They are found all over India, but principally in *Madras* and the *Panjab*. The *Ōḍs* of *Madras* speak Telugu, which seems to have been the original language of the tribe. In the *Panjab*, *Sind* and *Gujarat*, they have a home-language of their own. It is a mixture of *Marāṭhī* and *Gujarāṭī-Rājasthānī*, the relative proportions varying according to locality. We may compare it with the *Vaḍarī* already mentioned in connexion with *Bhāmṭī*.

The *Lāḍs* are a Gipsy tribe who sell betel-leaf, areca-nuts, tobacco, bhang, etc. They are found all over Western India, especially in the Bombay Presidency. Most of them have no dialect of their own, but some of those found in *Berar* speak what is locally known as *Lāḍī*. This is mainly a corrupt form of Eastern *Rājasthānī*.

Machariā is the language of a tribe of fowlers from *Sind*, who have migrated to the *Kapurthala* State in the *Panjab*. It is not properly a Gipsy language, though usually described as such. It is merely a mixture of *Sindhī* and *Pañjābī*.

¹ *Ante*, p. 92.

Gipsy Argots.	Survey.	
Sāsī	51,550	Those reported for the Survey are noted on the margin.
Kolhaṭī	2,367	These are used by criminals and other disreputable people for
Gārōḍī	?	purposes of secrecy, and are paralleled by the 'thieves' Latin,'
Myānwālē	?	and other cant forms of speech found in Europe. It is
Kañjarī	7,085	interesting to observe that, so far as they can be analysed,
Naṭī	11,534	they have adopted much the same means of disguising speech
Dōm	13,500	as those adopted in the west. Such are the use of special
Malār	2,309	words, often borrowed from foreign languages, just as a
Qaṣāī	2,700	London thief calls his woman a 'Donah,' borrowed from
Sikalgārī	25	the foreign 'Donna.' Or they transpose letters. A London
Gulgulī	853	thief calls a policeman a 'slop' (<i>i.e.</i> , 'icelop,' transposed
TOTAL	91,923	

from 'police') and so an Indian thief calls his enemy the police Jamādār, a 'Majādār,' *i.e.*, 'the sweet one.' Or single letters may be changed in a word. In German cant, 'hitze,' heat, becomes 'witze,' and so when a Sāsī wishes to say he is hungry, he uses the word 'jhūkhā' instead of 'bhūkhā.' The speakers of these cant argots are, of course, bilingual. They speak the language of their neighbours, and reserve the argot only for special occasions. But some of them, such, for instance, as the Sāsīs, are trilingual. In communicating with their neighbours they employ the ordinary language of the country, for criminal purposes they employ an argot, while for general purposes they have what may be called a semi-argot, possessing some of the characteristics of the true argot, but with a simpler vocabulary, which they commonly use among themselves. The true argot is often not generally known to all the members of the tribe, but only to those who are grown up and expert. As already mentioned, our knowledge of these argots is necessarily incomplete. It is to be expected that the gentlemen who make use of them would not be willing to admit their existence to a Government official, even when he is asking for the Linguistic Survey. When questioned they usually deny its existence altogether, so that what materials we do possess have been obtained only with considerable difficulty. A noteworthy example is that of the Chūhrās, whose argot does not appear at all in the pages of the Survey. I therefore begin our consideration of the subject with a brief reference to this tribe based on the information given by Dr. Grahame Bailey.¹

The Chūhrās are a tribe found in the Panjab. In 1921 their number was not recorded. Their occupation is scavenging, which they vary by burgling, cattle poisoning, and other criminal practices. They eat carrion. Their argot is Pañjabī, but they conceal their meaning by using a pretty copious secret vocabulary which makes it quite unintelligible to the ordinary hearer. Many of these words are also found in other argots, such as Sāsī or Qaṣāī. In order to give an idea of the kind of speech they use, I give the following extract from Dr. Bailey's *Notes*:—

In order to get right to the heart of things let us accompany an expedition which has as its object the plundering of some rich man's house. Some *chhurām* (thief) who always keeps his eyes open has discovered a *kudḍh* (house), belonging to some *Rāṭkī* (Hindū) or *Ghīr balā* (Musalmān). He seeks out another *Kālā* (thief) from among his own people, the *Rūngē* (Chūhrās), or he may

¹ *Notes on Punjabi Dialects*, pp. 13ff.

find an obliging *Bhātū* (Sāsī) ready to help him. Having painted in glowing colours the richness of the house in *bhīmṭē* (rupees) and *bagēlē* (do.) and *harjēyē* (pice) and *thēlē* (a kind of ornament), he says "chalō gul lāiyē" (let us break into the house). We shall follow these men, as on a dark moonless night they set out. Having reached the house they produce their *tombū* (iron instrument for house-breaking, an oriental jemmy) and set to work. They take the precaution of placing by their side several *chhikārē* or clods of earth with which to assail any unwelcome intruder. The hole is finally made and the thief, leaving outside his *kārṭē* (stick) and *paintṛē* or *chākhāl* (shoes), and telling his *litārā* (confidant) to keep a sharp look out, enters the house. If he finds no one inside he will venture to light a *ghasāṭī* (match). Suddenly a small clod of earth drops near the house-breaker; this is the *neolā* (piece of earth thrown as a warning of impending danger). He looks round in alarm and hears the whispered words "kajjā chāmdā ī" (a Jāt is looking). This interruption in his *gaimṛ* (thieving) he feels to be most inopportune. He feels still more ill at ease when he hears another hoarse whisper "thip jā (hide yourself), *palwē* hōjā" (get to one side). He calls back "kainkar kar (throw a clod of earth), *lōṭh* lai sū" (beat him or kill him) and emerges from the house. The *neodī* (theft) has not prospered. The two thieves flee by different ways to their homes, and next day discuss with great astonishment, bordering on incredulity, a report which has got abroad that a *kajjā* has been attacked by two Chāhrā *chhurm* (thieves) who were engaged in *lālī* (robbery), and has almost *lug* *gayā* (died).

The Sāsīs are a well-known criminal tribe, who, like the Chāhrās, are mostly found in the Panjab. The Survey was more fortunate in regard to them, and, in addition to the information obtained by it, there are also the various papers on the tribe by Dr. Grahame Bailey, who has made it a special study. The Sāsīs are trilingual. They speak the general language of their surroundings, and have also two dialects, one, the ordinary Sāsī which they use amongst themselves, and the other the criminal dialect. In the Panjab, the ordinary dialect is a corrupt mixture of Hindōstānī and Pañjābī, together with a few forms borrowed from Western Pahārī or Rājasthānī. Elsewhere it more nearly approaches corrupt Hindōstānī. The criminal argot differs from the ordinary dialect only in the use of secret words. These are very numerous, and make the language quite unintelligible to an outsider. Some of these words seem to be borrowed from other languages, Dravidian and Indo-Aryan. Many of them are found also in other argots. In other cases letters are prefixed or suffixed to common words, so as to disguise them, as, for instance, when they say *kukkhī* for the Pañjābī *akkhī*, an eye, or in *dhōr* for *dō*, two. Or initial letters may be changed as in *naukhnā* for *lōknā* or *dēkhnā*, to see. These changes will be familiar to English readers from memories of their childish games, and it can readily be understood what confusion they make in a language, even when the grammar, as in the case of Sāsī, is but slightly changed.

The Kōlhātīs are a tribe of rope-dancers and tumblers in the Bombay Presidency, Berar, and the Hyderabad State. Many of the women are prostitutes, the tribe claims to be related to the Sāsīs, and this is borne out by their argot, which closely resembles that of that tribe.

The Gārōḍīs are a wandering tribe of jugglers in the Belgaum District of Bombay. They are said to be Musalmāns, but their religion sits very lightly on them. Their argot is a mixture of Dravidian and Indo-Aryan, the latter being represented by forms sometimes Hindōstānī, sometimes Rājasthānī, and sometimes Marāṭhī. In addition, as in Sāsī, they have many disguised

words, the meaning of which is unintelligible to an outsider. The number of speakers of this argot is unknown.

The Myānwālēs are a tribe also found in Belgaum. Little is known about them, but they seem ostensibly to be vagrant blacksmiths. They have an argot based on Hindōstānī and on Rājasthānī-Gujarātī, with a number of secret and disguised words. Here and there we also come across Dravidian words. The number of speakers is unknown.

The Kañjars are a vagrant tribe. Some of them have taken to a settled life, but most of them live in the forests, where they live on what they can catch or gather, and manufacture forest products which they sell to their more civilized neighbours. Their occupations are thus sufficiently various. Amongst other things they make mats, baskets, fans, leaf platters, and the like. They have almost the monopoly of the collection of the fragrant *khaskhas* grass, and, as stone-cutters, they make the grinding stones found in every Indian house. Their principal home is in the United Provinces. They speak the language of their neighbours, but have also their argot, called Kañjarī. It is a mixed form of speech, mainly based on Eastern Rājasthānī, but partly on some Dravidian language. It has also, as elsewhere, a number of secret or disguised words.

The Naṭs are a tribe of acrobats, dancers, prostitutes, and thieves, who are found in considerable numbers all over northern India and the north of the Deccan. In Bihar and the United Provinces they are recognized as possessing, like other similar vagrant tribes, a secret argot, and probably this is also the case elsewhere. It is a mixture of Hindōstānī and Rājasthānī, and, as usual, has a large number of secret and disguised words. The basis is probably Rājasthānī, as forms peculiar to that language appear in parts of India where that language is unknown to the general population.

The Dōms are a tribe of great antiquity, and probably of Dravidian origin. They are numerous all over India north of the Deccan, and in greatest number in Bengal, Bihar, and the United Provinces. They are of special interest because the word 'Rōm,' the name used for a European Gipsy, is almost certainly the same word carried to the west. They have varied occupations. They supply fire at cremations and act as executioners. Others are scavengers, and others have taken to basket and cane working. In the Himalayan districts they have gained a fairly respectable position as husbandmen and artizans, while the wandering Magahiyā Dōms of Bihar are professional thieves. On the other hand, in north-western India, Dōms occupy a good position as professional minstrels, and it was professional minstrels of this part of India who are said by Persian historians to have migrated into Persia, and thence, as Gipsies, into Syria and Europe. It is the disreputable Magahiyā Dōms of Bihar who have been identified as possessing a secret argot. As stated above, they are notorious thieves and bad characters, who will not cultivate or do honest labour if they can help it. The women are no better than the men. As a cover they do occasional basketwork, but their true occupation is that of a spy and disposer of stolen goods. Some of their methods of concealing stolen goods have the merit of ingenuity, but hardly of decency.¹ The argot of these people is based on the local dialect of Bihārī (usually

¹ As a magistrate who has had many of these people before him, I can speak with personal knowledge.

Bhojpuri) with a mixture of Rājasthānī and Hindōstānī. The presence of Hindōstānī is easy to explain, but not that of Rājasthānī, unless the tribe once lived in Rajputana. In addition to this, there is the usual copious supply of secret and of disguised words. The latter, in their principles of formation, differ in no way from those of other argots, while many of the secret words are common to all vagrant tribes.

The Malārs are a vagrant tribe of moulders in brass found in Chōṭa Nagpur.

Malār. Unlike Dōms they are not, as a tribe, professional criminals.

The ordinary language of that country is the Nagpuriā dialect of Bihārī, and the Malārs have an argot which is simply a slang based upon it. These people do not seem to employ any strange or secret words, but content themselves with disguising Nagpuriā words by the ordinary methods of prefixing and suffixing letters which we have observed elsewhere.

The Qaṣāīs are professional butchers, and are found all over India, except in the

Qaṣāī. Madras Presidency and the extreme south. They are most numerous in the United Provinces and in the Panjab.

They have a trade language of their own, which is an argot of the usual kind. It is based on Hindōstānī, with a mixture of local words. The disguising consists principally in the use of strange or secret words. The disguising of common words by additions before or at the end is much more rare than in the argots we have hitherto considered. It is worth mentioning that among the strange expressions used by them are the Arabic words for the numerals.

Sikalgārī is the argot used by the Saiqalgārs or armourers. As becomes their pro-

Sikalgārī. fession most of them are found in Rajputana, but the only locality from which a Sikalgārī argot has been reported is

the Bombay District of Belgaum. There the secret argot is based on Gujarātī or Bhīlī. The ordinary means are employed. There are a certain number of secret words, and ordinary words are disguised by prefixes or suffixes, or other methods of deformation.

The Gulguliās are a vagrant non-Aryan tribe found in the Hazaribagh District of Chōṭa Nagpur. They are few in number, and live by hunt-

Gulguliā. ing, teaching monkeys to dance, selling drugs, begging, and

petty thieving. They have an argot of the usual description containing secret and disguised words. In intercourse with outsiders they employ the ordinary language of the locality.

Leaving the Gipsy languages, we come to Burushaskī or Khajuna, which is spoken by the brave tribes who inhabit Hunza Nagar and the

Burushaskī. neighbouring country on our extreme North-Western

Frontier. The number of speakers is unknown. Hitherto it has remained a riddle among languages. No philologist has as yet satisfactorily succeeded in placing it under any recognized family of speeches. One gentleman¹ has, it is true, claimed to be able to class it as a 'Siberio-Nubian' tongue, but he offered no proof of his statement, although the name has the doubtful advantage of being unintelligible to everyone except its inventor. I myself have compared it with nearly every other known Asiatic language, and have failed to find any certain congener, though here and there a

¹ Hyde Clarke, in *Indian Antiquary*, I, 258 (1872).

resemblance in vocabulary has started me on more than one wild-goose chase. The nearest thing to certainty to which I have ever attained has been an impression that there may possibly be a distant connexion with the Munḍā languages; but I have never succeeded in persuading myself that this is actually the case. Half a century after the publication of the Siberio-Nubian theory, an American scholar, Mr. P. L. Barbour,¹ has offered a theory which leads in the same direction. He himself does not put it forward as proved, but rather as indicating lines for future investigation, and it is very probable that further inquiries in this direction may ultimately solve the problem. He looks upon Burushaski as a remnant of a language spoken in northern India before the Aryan invasion. We have seen that the Munḍā languages are now confined to the hills south of the Gangetic plain, but that traces of languages of the same family are found in the Lower Himalaya so far west as Kanawar in the Panjab.² Mr. Barbour's theory assumes an ancient form of this Munḍā speech (possibly contaminated by Dravidian) more widely spread over northern India, and in existence at the time of the Aryan invasion. Some three thousand years ago, one set of its speakers were driven north by the Aryans into the fastnesses of the Hindūkush and have had an isolated existence there ever since, during which time their language has developed on its own lines.³ Others, before the advancing tide of Aryan immigration, took refuge in the hills north and south of the Ganges, and became the Munḍās and their cognate brethren of the lower Himalaya. I have here given my account of Mr. Barbour's theory, not in his own words, but as it has been filtered through my brain; and hence, possibly, I may have misrepresented it, or may have laid stress on points which to him may have been less important. Moreover, what I have given is merely a condensed summary of what he has expressed with much detail and with a consideration of Dravidian elements of the population which, for the sake of simplicity, I have omitted.

Burushaski has many names. The neighbouring races call it *Khajuna*; the Nagar people call it *Yashkun*, and the Yārkanḍis *Kunjūti*. The dialect spoken in Yasin and the neighbourhood is known as *Warshikwār*. The language has a fully conjugated verb with two numbers and three persons, and its most characteristic feature is the extremely frequent use made of pronominal prefixes, so as sometimes greatly to alter the appearance of a word. Thus 'my wife' is *aus* but 'thy wife' is *gus*; 'to make him' is *etas*; 'to make you' is *mamaritas* if you are a gentleman, but *matas* if you are a lady.

Finally there are the languages of the Andaman islanders. These do not fall within the purview of the Survey, and I have nothing to add to our knowledge concerning them. Philologists have not yet succeeded in connecting them with any recognized family of speech. They are all agglutinative, making free use of prefix, infix, and suffix, and are adapted only to the expression of the more simple ideas. Abstract ideas are almost beyond their power of expression, and meaning is eked out by the free use of gesture.

Andamanese.

¹ In the *Journal of the American Oriental Society*, Vol. XLI (1921), pp. 60ff.

² *Ante*, pp. 35 and 55.

³ The fact that Burushaski words are found in the Dardic languages, shows that it must have once been spoken over a much wider area than that suggested by its present habitat. If, as I believe, the Dardic languages represent the speech of an independent Aryan invasion from the north, over the Hindūkush, we can assume that the speakers of the ancient proto-Munḍā language were first driven north into what is now the Dard country by the Aryans from the west, and that subsequently Aryan invaders from the north entered that country, and either settled among them, or drove them into the still more inaccessible fastnesses where they are now found.

CHAPTER XVII.—CONCLUDING REMARKS.

With these languages of the Andamans we complete our survey of the tongues spoken in India—a land of contrasts, nowhere more evident than when we approach the consideration of its vernaculars. There are languages whose phonetic rules prohibit the existence of more than a few hundred words, and that cannot express what are to us the commonest and most simple of ideas; and there are others with opulent vocabularies, rivalling English in their copiousness and in their accuracy of idea-connotation. There are languages every word of which must be a monosyllable, and there are others with words in which syllable is piled on syllable, till the whole is almost a sentence in itself. There are languages which know neither noun nor verb, and whose only grammatical feature is syntax; and there are others with grammatical systems as completely worked out as those of Greek or Latin. There are languages with a long historical past reaching over thirty centuries; and there are others with no tradition whatever of the past. There are the rude languages of the naked savages of Eastern Assam, which have never yet been reduced to writing; and there are languages with great literatures adorned by illustrious poets and containing some of the most elevated deistic sentiments that have found utterance in the East. There are languages, capable in themselves of expressing every idea, which are nevertheless burdened with an artificial vocabulary borrowed from a form of speech that has been dead for two thousand years; and there are others, equally capable, that disdain such fantastic crutches, and every sentence of which breathes the reek of the smoke from the homesteads of the sturdy peasantry that utters it. There are parts of India that recall the confusion in the Land of Shinar where the tower of old was built, in which almost each petty group of tribal villages has its own separate language; and there are great plains, thousands and tens of thousands of miles in area, over which one language is spoken from end to end.

And over all there broods the glamour of eastern mystery. Through all we hear the inarticulate murmur of past ages, — of ages when the Aryans wandered with their flocks across the rivers of Mesopotamia; when the Indo-Chinese had not yet issued from their home on the Yang-tse-kiang; when some prehistoric Indian Teucer dared to lead his companions across the Bengal Bay to Indonesia; and perhaps when there existed the Lemurian continent where now sweep the restless waves of the Indian Ocean.

Light comes from the East, but many years must yet be passed in unremitting quest of knowledge before we can inevitably distinguish it from the false dawn that is but a promise and no reality. Hitherto scholars have busied themselves with the tongues and thoughts of ancient India, and have too often presented them as illustrating the India of modern times. But the true modern India will never be known to us till the light in the West has been reflected back on the hopes, the fears, the beliefs, of the three hundred and twenty millions who inhabit it at the present day. For this, an accurate knowledge of the vernaculars is necessary, a knowledge not only of the colloquial languages, but also, when they exist, of the literatures too commonly decried as worthless, but which one who has studied them and loved them can confidently affirm to be no mean possession of no mean land.

**Defects of the Survey.
Incompleteness.**

No one is more conscious of the deficiencies of this Survey than he who has been responsible for its conduct. To begin with, although called the Linguistic Survey of India, large tracts of India are altogether unrepresented in its pages, and the languages of the States of Hyderabad and Mysore and of the great Provinces of Madras and of Burma have received only the most cursory notice. This was the result of circumstances for which I was not responsible, and I can do no more than express my regret for the fact. So far as Burma is concerned, I rejoice that an independent Linguistic Survey of that Province is now being undertaken under the capable superintendence of Mr. L. F. Taylor of the Indian Educational Service. In the present Survey, the numerous Indo-Chinese languages spoken in the Province of Assam received full attention, but any account of them was necessarily incomplete, so long as the cognate forms of speech employed in the adjacent Burma remained unexamined. Independently therefore of the practical aid which the Linguistic Survey of Burma will contribute to the Government of that Province, it will also enable those interested in languages generally to study the Indo-Chinese languages of India as a whole. When that Survey is completed, it will be possible to compare the Bârâ of western Assam with the Lolo of eastern Burma, and the Khâsî of Shillong with the Talaing of Amherst beyond the Gulf of Martaban. May I express the hope that at some future time a similar Survey will be held of the languages of Madras and of the States of the Deccan which have not been dealt with in these pages.

Phonetic Desiderata.

The reader who may have to consult the volumes of this Survey will no doubt regret, as I do, the absence from its pages of any reference to the important subject of phonetics. When the Survey was begun that science was in its childhood. It was hardly known in India, and, even in Europe, it had not yet succeeded in producing an alphabetic system capable of representing all possible sounds which had been universally adopted by general consent. At the present day, the state of affairs is very different, and the alphabet of the International Phonetic Association is now familiar to every serious student of language. An ideal inquiry into the various modern languages spoken in India would require that every vernacular word quoted should be written in that script, and with its help we should then be able to tell exactly how each word in each dialect is pronounced. But its correct employment is within the power only of trained phoneticians, and, even if at the time the specimens of this Survey were being prepared it had been in use in India, its employment would have been dangerous. Except for one or two languages, such, for instance, as Bengali,¹ no Indian form of speech of the present day has been the object of the necessary detailed and minute study, and it is often impossible to say what are the exact sounds which are to be represented in written form. In this Survey, most of the materials have either been received from government officials, who,—however familiar with the practical use of the dialects on which they reported they may have been,—did not pretend to be skilled phoneticians, or else have been collected from books by many authors which gave no real particulars regarding the sounds recorded in them. In such cases all that we can hope for is an approximate representation, which may or may not be accurate, of the various sounds, and here the use of phonetic script

¹ See Professor S. K. Chatterji's article on *Bengali Phonetics* in the 'Bulletin of the School of Oriental Studies,' Vol. II, pp. 15f.

would give the reader a false sense of security that might easily lead him astray. As it is obvious that one system must be used throughout, the specimens in this Survey have all been recorded in an alphabet based on the well-known official system employed in India for the transliteration of Indian words. This is the system with which all government officials are familiar, and which they can be trusted to employ correctly. The record of sounds so made is, as I have said, confessedly a mere approximation, but, as it is consistent with itself, it may be used with some confidence as a foundation for further inquiries into phonetic niceties.

After all that can be said in its favour, the Survey is but a representation of the written word, nor could this be much improved for the lay reader by the most accurate and most scientific of phonetic transcriptions. Unless the subject is in metre, no system of spelling can convey to the reader those nuances of expression which give its life to each word and adjust it to its proper relationship to its fellows in a sentence. The same man may pronounce the same word in a slightly different manner each of ten times in half as many minutes, and each time the slight difference will give it a different shade of meaning. Nevertheless, in spelling, each of these different enunciations is represented by the same letters. Moreover, the written word gives no record of the emphasis laid on particular syllables or on the general cadence, or swing, of each sentence, although the custom in regard to these differs in every language. I have pointed out above¹ how the order of a speaker's thoughts differs from nation to nation, and how this influences language in the order of the words employed by him in a sentence. But that is not the only effect of the order of the speaker's thought. It also exercises an important influence on the cadence of each phrase, so that the natural cadence of, say, an English phrase differs widely from that of any Indian language. Now, for mutual intelligibility, the correct representation of a phrase with its proper cadence is all-important. A familiar example of this is the case of an Englishman speaking Bengali. On his arrival in India he may possibly speak the language with perfect verbal correctness and with fair pronunciation; yet, if he addresses the simplest sentence to a villager, he will find it a common experience to receive as a reply, 'Sāhib, I do not understand English.' The man has no idea of being impertinent, nor is he wanting in intelligence. If he had grasped the fact that he was being addressed in Bengali, he would have known the meaning of every word uttered to him. But he is more or less flustered by the white face of the stranger, and all that his slow mind apprehends is that he has been spoken to in an unfamiliar cadence,—and not in that of his own language. Without attempting to identify the separate words of his questioner he couples this strange sentence-melody with the white face, and jumps to the conclusion that he is being addressed in English.

This particular defect of the written word as a representation of speech is remedied by the use of a gramophone or phonograph. With one of these, even if its pronunciation of a particular word or of a particular letter is not clear, the emphasis and melody of each sentence is always reproduced with perfect competence. For this reason,—as a supplement to the Survey,—arrangements have been made with several of the Provincial Governments and with certain of the States of India for the preparation of gramophone records of

¹ P. 48.

passages in the principal languages spoken within their respective jurisdictions. At the time of writing (April, 1924) these records have been received from the following Governments:—Bihar and Orissa, Bombay, Burma, the Central Provinces, Delhi, Madras, and the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, and others are under preparation or have been promised. Altogether 218 records, illustrating 97 languages and dialects have been prepared,¹ and have been placed within the reach of students by the presentation of complete sets to the India Office Library, the British Museum, the Royal Asiatic Society, the School of Oriental Studies, the Bodleian Library at Oxford, the University Libraries of Cambridge, Dublin, and Edinburgh, and (in Paris) the Institut de France.

These records have more than once been publicly exhibited in London, and have excited considerable attention in circles devoted to the serious study of Indian languages. But their usefulness has not stopped there. Properly prepared gramophone records render invaluable aid in teaching any language. A gramophone will repeat with perfect accuracy any passage, long or short, over and over again, without raising any objection, while a human teacher is human and possesses a throat that soon, like his patience, becomes exhausted. So useful have these records that have been prepared for the Linguistic Survey proved themselves, that certain of them now form parts of the language courses laid down in this country for the instruction of Selected Candidates for the Indian Civil Service.

With one group of exceptions, all Indian words have, from beginning to end of this Survey, been spelt on the system above described.

Spelling of proper names; Of persons. All the exceptions are proper names. When the name of a person is mentioned, and is known only as written in an Indian character, I have transliterated it like any other vernacular word. But, if he is alive at the present day and writes his name himself in English style, I follow the spelling used by him, on the principle that every person has the right to decide how his own name should be spelt. Thus, if a gentleman calls himself 'Bonnerjee', I write his name so, although he himself might, when using Indian characters, write it 'Vandyōpādhyāya,' or, if he signs himself 'Jeejeebhoy,' I do not call him 'Jijibhāi.'

The question of proper names of places is more difficult. There occur in the Survey hundreds of names of towns or villages, the correct spelling of which either is uncertain, or has been conventionalized. Regarding the latter, there need be no hesitation. Even in the most meticulously scientific work, no one would dream of writing 'Kalikātā' for 'Calcutta' or 'Kānhpur' for 'Cawnpur.' But the question of how to deal with the names of those less known places, the spelling of which is uncertain, is not so easy to answer. The difficulty lies chiefly in regard to diacritical marks. In most parts of India it is not customary to aim at the accuracy achieved by their use. People, for instance, write 'Garhwal,' not 'Garhwāl,' and 'Shahabad,' not 'Shāhābād.' In other parts, such as Bombay, diacritical marks are more frequently employed in official publications, while, again, elsewhere, as in the Province of Madras, other and independent principles prevail. The correct spelling of most Indian place-names is, it is true, given in the Imperial Gazetteer, but this was not published till 1908, when a large

¹A complete list of these records will be found in Appendix II.

part of this Survey had already been published. It was manifestly inadvisable to write some place-names with full diacritical marks, and others without them, and therefore, in dealing with place-names, I have, save in exceptional cases, followed the present custom of the greater part of Northern India, and have altogether avoided using them.

It is unnecessary to state that the whole value of the Survey depends upon its accuracy. Do the specimens, as recorded, truly represent the forms of speech of which they purport to be examples?

Accuracy of Results.

To this I can answer that, taken as a whole, I believe they do. More than ordinary precautions were taken to attain this object. No pains have been spared in endeavours to clear up doubtful points. My correspondence in this respect has been very large, and has sometimes had unexpected results. That there are errors here and there, and that some specimens are less valuable than others, is freely admitted; a uniformity of excellence would be an ideal impossible of attainment; but, if we consider the sources from which the translations came, it will be evident that in each case the chances of fair correctness having been achieved were considerable. The great majority of specimens were prepared either by Indians whose native language it was that was being illustrated, or else by missionaries who lived in daily and hourly contact with the illiterate people that spoke it. Others, again, were prepared by members of my own service, including many personal friends in the ripeness of whose knowledge I had the fullest confidence, and who had made special studies of the speeches of wild tribes to whom reading and writing were unknown. There were, of course, exceptions. Especially, in the case of some Indian contributors there was exhibited the consistent Indian preference for uniformity and for what was deemed correctness of speech. Some felt pain in putting into a written character, upon which they looked with reverence, the uncouth language of an unlettered peasant, and took pains to prune its luxuriance, to eradicate weeds of vulgarity, and to present to my view a garden too elegant in its symmetry. A few even refused to write down at all the barbarous words they heard, and offered to me as a specimen of the speech of an ignorant rustic a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in faultless Persianized Urdū or Sanskritized Bengali. A few of such even passed through the sifting to which all specimens were subjected by the local authorities before they reached me, but were readily recognized, and correspondence soon put matters right. My principal source of safety was, however, the great number of specimens received. As previously stated, there were several thousands of these, and for most languages there was a large choice available. No one could read and study all these,—and every single one of them received my careful personal scrutiny,—without gaining considerable experience in weighing values, and a *flair* for what was genuine and what was not. This, I confess, was a subjective test; but I used it, I hope, with discretion in selecting what specimens should be and what should not be printed. The great thing was that in most cases I was able to select, and was not compelled to accept unquestioned whatever I received from my informants. For languages with which I was myself familiar, for dialects acquired in the long cold-weather evenings chatting over camp-fires with the village greybeards or listening to village bards, I was naturally in a peculiarly favourable position; and the experience so gained was invaluable to me in estimating the worth of contributions couched in

forms of speech known to me only from books or not known to me at all. I therefore feel some confidence in offering the pages of this Survey as forming, on the whole, a truthful picture of the languages spoken over a large part of India. That I shall welcome criticisms and corrections goes without saying. To quote the words of Sir Thomas Browne,¹—

Weigh not thyself in the scales of thy own opinion, but let the Judgment of the Judicious be the Standard of thy Merit.... 'Twere but a civil piece of complacency to suffer them to sleep who would not wake, to let them rest in their securities, nor by dissent or opposition to stagger their contentments.

Such as they are, I lay these volumes as an offering before the India that was long my home, and that has itself had a home in my heart. The Sum of the matter. for more than half a century. It was to me a memorable day when in 1868 my honoured teacher, Professor Robert Atkinson, introduced me to the Sanskrit alphabet in what soon became to me his familiar rooms in Trinity College, Dublin. Five years later, as, full of hope, I was bidding him farewell before starting for India, he laid this task upon me, and with the enthusiasm of youth I gladly undertook it. Throughout my active life among the people whom soon I learned to love, his parting injunction was ever present to my mind, and urged me on to devote such time as I could spare from official duties to preparation for its accomplishment. Twenty years later came the opportunity, and the privilege of conducting this Survey became mine. For me personally these years of preparation were by no means without profit. I have been granted a vision of a magnificent literature enshrining the thoughts of great men, from generation to generation, through three thousand years. I have been able to stroll through enchanted gardens of poesy, beginning with the happy, care-free, hymns of the Vēdas, continuing through great epics, through the magic of the Indian drama and the consummate word-witchery of Kālidāsa, through the lyric poetry of the Indian reformation, through the heart-melody of Tulasī Dās, down to the jewelled distichs of Bihārī Lāl. Truth have I gathered from many a tree of knowledge,—from the ripe Paṇḍit, strong in his monism, acute in thought, crystal clear in his exposition, and from the simple peasant chatting in his rude patois under the village tree, steeped in the deepest superstition, yet quick with a living faith in the fatherhood of God that would put to shame many a professing Christian. Hidden under religiosity have I found religion, hidden under legend history, wisdom have I found in the proverbs of the unlettered herd. Here and here did India help me; how can I help India? This is a question that we Westerners who have gone to India in the service of His Majesty have each in his own way done our best to answer. Among us have been great administrators, great soldiers, great scholars, great teachers, masters of the art of healing. There have been diversities of gifts, but the same spirit,—a spirit of devotion to duty, of love for and sympathy with the millions amid whom our lot was cast. My own share in the endeavour to answer it has been a very small one, but if this Survey should help to bring India nearer to the West, I shall feel that my efforts have not been utterly in vain.

To record my thanks to each of those who have helped me in this work would require a volume in itself. To the many members of my own service, to the generous missionaries, and to others who

Thanks for help.

¹ *Christian Morals*, II, 8.

have spared no time and no trouble in providing me with specimens or in solving difficulties, I owe a heavy debt of gratitude. In each case their names have been recorded at the heads of the specimens contributed by them. If I here refer to them as a whole, and not name by name, they will understand that this has been done with no thought of making the debt of light account. I must, however, make an exception in favour of one name—that of the Reverend G. Macalister. At the instance of His Highness the Maharaja of Jaipur, this gentleman himself carried out a survey of the many dialects spoken in that State. The book¹ in which the results of his inquiry were recorded is a veritable storehouse of folklore, and must always be indispensable to anyone who desires to become familiar with the language of Rajputana.

Of those brought into more immediate contact with myself, I must first of all record my obligations to Rai Bahadur Gouri Kanta Roy, who was my Head Assistant while I was in India, and for some years afterwards. He was responsible for the collection, arrangement, and copying of the thousands of specimens that were received during the earlier stages of the Survey. Through his most efficient superintendence of an office containing clerks of various nationalities and capabilities, the preliminary stages of the Survey moved steadily and uniformly to completion. He finished a long and honorable service under the Government of India as Superintendent of the office of the Punjab Disorders Committee, in the year 1921.

To my friend and collaborator Professor Sten Konow² it is difficult for me to render sufficient acknowledgment. For nearly three years (1900 to 1902) we worked together, side by side, in the same room, and many a page of the volumes written during that period bears unacknowledged traces of his inspiring help. After his return to his home in Kristiania he continued still to place at my disposal all the powers of his clear intellect and of his erudition. As explained in the various prefaces, a large part of the Survey has come directly from his pen, and I should deeply regret if the credit for these sections was not fully attributed to him.³

Since Professor Konow's return to Norway in 1903, my assistant has been Mr. E. H. Hall, to whose constant assiduity I cannot avoid recording a word of recognition. Endowed with a remarkable facility for acquiring a familiarity with every oriental written character employed between Persia and Siam, he has been a most efficient proof-reader, and few misprints have escaped his notice. The originals of nearly all the maps in the different volumes of the Survey are also from his pen. To him, and to the careful printing of the Government of India Press, the Survey owes much freedom from clerical errors.

Last, but by no means least, comes the recognition of my obligations to my friends and fellow-workers at the head-quarters of the British and Foreign Bible Society, and particularly to Dr. Kilgour, the Editorial Secretary, and Mr. Darlow, the Literary Superintendent. Nothing can exceed the sympathy and the practical help which they constantly accorded to me in the course of my inquiries into the history of the

¹ *Specimens of the Dialects spoken in the State of Jeypore*, by the Rev. G. Macalister, M.A. Allahabad Mission Press, 1898.

² Now Professor in Oslo (Kristiania) University.

³ His contributions were:—Vol. III, Parts i, ii (a portion), and iii (Tibeto-Burman languages), Vol. IV (Dravidian and Mundā languages), Vol. VII (Marāṭhī), most of Vol. IX, Part iii (Bhil languages), and Vol. XI (Gipsy languages.)

literatures of the Indian languages. Of these literatures Biblical translations form an important part, and, in the case of many less known forms of speech, formed the only printed materials available. These were most liberally placed at my disposal, and were even procured for me when not obtainable in Europe. That monument of learning and completeness, the Historical Catalogue of Printed Editions of the Holy Scriptures in the Library of the Society, by Mr. Darlow and Mr. Moule, was a never-failing source of accurate information, much of which has been embodied in the bibliographical sections of the Survey, and what better tribute to it can I pay than to end these remarks with the colophon, taken from de Dieu's edition of Revelation,¹ which closed that magnificent work :—

IAM VALE, LECTOR HVMANISSIME, ET LABORIBVS NOSTRIS FEVERE, EX QVIBVS SI QVID FRVCTVS CAPIS, TOTVM ILLVD OPT. MAXIMOQVE DEO ACCEPTVM REFERATVR, CVIVS VNIVS GLORIAM HIC SPECTAMVS, CVIQVE LAVS ET HONOS DEBETVR IN SEMPITERNVM.

¹ Leyden, 1627.

SUPPLEMENT I.

Addenda Majora

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VOLUME III—PART II.

SIMI OR SEMĀ.

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As stated in the Addenda Minora, I have been informed by Mr. J. H. Hutton, C.I.E., the author of *A Rudimentary Grammar of the Sema Naga Language*, and of *The Sema Nagas* (London, 1921), that the language described in the Survey represents the Lazmi dialect, which is very different from the language spoken by the greater part of the tribe. To the kindness of that gentleman I owe the following list of words in the Semā language which is in general use.

Mr. Hutton explains that the pronunciation of the vowels varies considerably, not only between villages, but between individuals. The normal value of a vowel is also very illusive, and varies between the long and short quantities. Only where the vowel is very definitely long or short, have the marks — for long and ˘ for short been used. The letter æ indicates the sound of the *a* in 'pant', and, as usual, the mark ' indicates the stress accent.

STANDARD LIST OF WORDS AND SENTENCES IN THE SEMĀ LANGUAGE.

English.	Semā.	English.	Semā.
1. One . . .	laki, (<i>in counting</i>) khě.	25. Your . . .	nōkomi.
2. Two . . .	kini.	26. He . . .	pa.
3. Three . . .	kuthu.	27. Of him . . .	pa-.
4. Four . . .	bidhi.	28. His . . .	pa-.
5. Five . . .	pōngū.	29. They . . .	panō.
6. Six . . .	tsōghō.	30. Of them . . .	panō-.
7. Seven . . .	tsīni.	31. Their . . .	panōkomi.
8. Eight . . .	tāche.	32. Hand . . .	aoumzi, (<i>arm and hand</i>) aou.
9. Nine . . .	toku.	33. Foot . . .	akūpūmizhi, (<i>leg and foot</i>) akupu.
10. Ten . . .	cheghi ; chūghi.	34. Nose . . .	anhiki.
11. Twenty . . .	muku.	35. Eye . . .	anhyeti.
12. Fifty . . .	lho pōngt.	36. Mouth . . .	akichi.
13. Hundred . . .	akēh.	37. Tooth . . .	ahu.
14. I . . .	ni, ni-ye.	38. Ear . . .	akini.
15. Of me . . .	i-.	39. Hair . . .	(<i>of head</i>) asa : (<i>of body and of animals</i>) amhi.
16. Mine . . .	i-.	40. Head . . .	akutsū.
17. We . . .	niū.	41. Tongue . . .	amīli.
18. Of us . . .	niū-.	42. Belly . . .	apfo.
19. Our . . .	niūkomi.	43. Back . . .	akiche.
20. Thou . . .	no.	44. Iron . . .	ai.
21. Of thee . . .	o-.	45. Gold
22. Thine . . .	o-.	46. Silver
23. You . . .	nō.	47. Father . . .	apu.
24. Of you . . .	nō-.	48. Mother . . .	aza.

English.	Semā.	English.	Semā.
49. Brother . . .	(<i>elder</i>) amu; (<i>younger</i>) atūkuzu.	75. Camel
50. Sister . . .	(<i>elder</i>) afu; (<i>younger, if</i> <i>male speaking</i>) achepfu; (<i>younger, if woman</i> <i>speaking</i>) atsūnupfu.	76. Bird . . .	aghao.
51. Man . . .	timi.	77. Go . . .	ghwo-, gu-, wu-.
52. Woman . . .	totimi.	78. Eat . . .	chu-.
53. Wife . . .	anipfu.	79. Sit . . .	lkā-.
54. Child . . .	anu, itimi.	80. Come . . .	gwōghe-, ēghe-.
55. Son . . .	anu.	81. Beat . . .	hě.
56. Daughter . . .	anu, alimi, ilimi.	82. Stand . . .	putughwo-, (<i>stand up</i>) ithou-.
57. Slave	83. Die . . .	ti-, ti-wu-, tiu-.
58. Cultivator	84. Give . . .	tsū-.
59. Shepherd	85. Run . . .	pō-.
60. God . . .	Alhou, Timilhou (< lho-, <i>create</i>).	86. Up . . .	kungu.
61. Devil . . .	(<i>spirit of the earth</i>) tegha- mi.	87. Near . . .	avile.
62. Sun . . .	tsūkinhye (<i>heaven-house-</i> <i>eye</i>).	88. Down . . .	achiliu.
63. Moon . . .	akhi.	89. Far . . .	ghachewa, ala kusua (<i>dis-</i> <i>tant way</i>).
64. Star . . .	ayě, ayěsū.	90. Before . . .	azuno.
65. Fire . . .	ami.	91. Behind . . .	athiu.
66. Water . . .	azū.	92. Who? . . .	kū, kū-kin?
67. House . . .	aki.	93. What? . . .	kiu?
68. Horse . . .	kuru (< Hindōstāni ghōrā)	94. Why? . . .	kiu-shia?
69. Cow . . .	amishi.	95. And . . .	-ngwo (<i>enclitic to the first</i> <i>of two nouns coupled</i>), eno.
70. Dog . . .	atsū.	96. But . . .	-mu (<i>enclitic to the verb</i>), ti-shia-mu.
71. Cat . . .	akusá.	97. If . . .	(<i>participle used</i>).
72. Cock . . .	awu-du; ken, awu-khu.	98. Yes . . .	ih.
73. Duck	99. No . . .	mo.
74. Ass	100. Alas . . .	aiyā.

English.	Semā.	English.	Semā.
101. A father . . .	apu.	128. A good woman . . .	totimi kevi.
102. Of a father . . .	apu pa- (<i>preceding governing noun: = 'father his . . .</i>).	129. A bad boy . . .	āpumi kesao, āpumi 'lhokesā.
103. To a father . . .	apu vile.	130. Good women . . .	totimi kevi.
104. From a father . . .	apu lo.	131. A bad girl . . .	ilimi 'lhokesā.
105. Two fathers . . .	apu kini.	132. Good . . .	akevi, allo.
106. Fathers . . .	apu-nō (<i>but the singular is ordinarily used</i>).	133. Better . . .	hupau-ye hipau akevi (<i>this is better than that</i>).
107. Of fathers . . .	apunō panō-.	134. Best . . .	akevi-o.
108. To fathers . . .	apunō vile.	135. High . . .	chukumoghai.
109. From fathers . . .	apunō lo.	136. Higher . . .	-ye chukumoghai.
110. A daughter . . .	alimi.	137. Highest . . .	chukumoghai-o.
111. Of a daughter . . .	alimi pa-.	138. A horse . . .	kuru laki.
112. To a daughter . . .	alimi vile.	139. A mare (<i>Semās have no horses.</i>)
113. From a daughter . . .	alimi lo.	140. Horses . . .	kuru.
114. Two daughters . . .	alimi kini.	141. Mares
115. Daughters . . .	alimi.	142. A bull . . .	amishi-tsū laki.
116. Of daughters . . .	alimi panō-.	143. A cow . . .	amishi-khukhoh laki.
117. To daughters . . .	alimi vile.	144. Bulls . . .	amishitsū-hō ¹ .
118. From daughters . . .	alimi lo.	145. Cows . . .	amishikhukhoh-ō ¹ .
119. A good man . . .	timi kevi.	146. A dog . . .	atsū-li laki.
120. Of a good man . . .	timi kevi pa-.	147. A bitch . . .	atsū-ani laki.
121. To a good man . . .	timi kevi vile.	148. Dogs . . .	atsūli-ō ¹ .
122. From a good man . . .	timi kevi lo.	149. Bitches . . .	atsūani-ō ¹ .
123. Two good men . . .	timi kevi kini.	150. A he goat . . .	anyeh-tsū laki.
124. Good man . . .	timi kevi.	151. A female goat . . .	anye-khukhoh laki.
125. Of good men . . .	timi kevi panō-.	152. Goats . . .	anyeh-ō ¹ .
126. To good men . . .	timi kevi vile.	153. A male deer . . .	ashe-tsū laki.
127. From good men . . .	timi kevi lo.	154. A female deer . . .	ashe-khukhoh laki.

¹ These plural forms are very rare, the singular being generally employed instead.

English.	Semā.	English.	Semā.
155. Deer	ashe-ō ¹ .	182. We beat	niũ-na he-ni.
156. I am	niye a-ni.	183. You beat	nō-na he-ni.
157. Thou art	no a-ni.	184. They beat	panō-na he-ni.
158. He is	pa a-ni.	185. I beat (<i>Past Tense</i>)	i-na he-ke (<i>or he vai, or he-keana, and so throughout the tense</i>).
159. We are	niũ a-ni.	186. Thou beatest (<i>Past Tense</i>)	no-na he-ke.
160. You are	nō a-ni.	187. He beat (<i>Past Tense</i>)	pa-na he-ke.
161. They are	panō a-ni.	188. We beat (<i>Past Tense</i>)	niũ-na he-ke.
162. I was	niye 'ke.	189. You beat (<i>Past Tense</i>)	nō-na he-ke.
163. Thou wast	no a-ke.	190. They beat (<i>Past Tense</i>)	panō-na he-ke.
164. He was	pa a-ke.	191. I am beating	niye he-a-ni.
165. We were	niũ a-ke.	192. I was beating	i-na he-a-ni-ke.
166. You were	nō a-ke.	193. I had beaten	(<i>No pluperfect form</i>).
167. They were	panō a-ke.	194. I may beat	i-na he-ni-kyeni.
168. Be	a-lo.	195. I shall beat	i-na he-ni.
169. To be	a-.	196. Thou wilt beat	no-na he-ni.
170. Being	a-ye.	197. He will beat	pa-na he-ni.
171. Having been	a-puzūno.	198. We shall beat	niũ-na he-ni.
172. I may be	niye a-kyeni.	199. You will beat	nō-na he-ni.
173. I shall be	niye a-ni.	200. They will beat	panō-na he-ni.
174. I should be	201. I should beat	
175. Beat	he-lo.	202. I am beaten	(<i>No passive in use</i>).
176. To beat	hē-.	203. I was beaten	"
177. Beating	he-aye.	204. I shall be beaten	"
178. Having beaten	he-no, he-puzū, he-puzūno.	205. I go	niye wu-ni.
179. I beat	i-na he-ni.	206. Thou goest	no wu-ni.
180. Thou beatest	no-na he-ni.	207. He goes	pa wu-ni.
181. He heats	pa-na he-ni.	208. We go	niũ wu-ni.

¹ These plural forms are very rare, the singular being generally employed instead.

English.	Semā.	English.	Semā.
209. You go . . .	nō wu-ni.	226. In the house is the saddle of the white horse.	kuru metsoghōi pa-zin aki seleku ani.
210. They go . . .	panō wu-ni.	227. Put the saddle upon his back.	pa-kiche-shou zin pavetsūlo.
211. I went . . .	niye wu-ke (or wu-vai, or wu-ve-ke).	228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.	ina pa-nu akkeh (cane) kuthomo heke.
212. Thou wentest . . .	no-na wu-ke.	229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.	pana amishi athoh-shou akhye-ani.
213. He went . . .	pa-na wu-ke.	230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.	pana asū (tree) hupao (that) chiliu (under) kuru-shou ikā-ani.
214. We went . . .	niū-na wu-ke.	231. His brother is taller than his sister.	pa-fu-ye pa-mu akushoh (his elder brother . . . his elder sister).
215. You went . . .	nō-na wu-ke.	232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.	pa-me (its price) ghaka kini-ngo aduli ani.
216. They went . . .	panō-na wu-ke.	233. My father lives in that small house.	i-pu aki hupa kitla-lo ngu-ani.
217. Go . . .	wu-lo.	234. Give this rupee to him.	ghaka hipa pa tsū-lo.
218. Going . . .	wu-aye.	235. Take those rupees from him.	ghaka hupao pa-lo kegha-lulo (kegha-lu-, snatch-take).
219. Gone . . .	ke-wu.	236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.	alokei (well) pa he-puzūno, akeghe-pfe pa tsūghālo.
220. What is your name?	o-zhe kū kya?	237. Draw water from the well.	azūki-lo azū pfu-eghelo (bring water from the spring. Wells are unknown).
221. How old is this horse?	kuru hipa amphe (year) kije ani kya?	238. Walk before me.	i-zuno iluelo.
222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?	hilao-lo Kashmir ala (road) kije ani kya?	239. Whose boy comes behind you?	o-thiu kū āpumi egh-ani kya?
223. How many sons are there in your father's house?	o-pu pa-ki-lo anu kije ani kya?	240. From whom did you buy that?	nono hupahi kū-ki-io khūvai kya?
224. I have walked a long way to-day.	ina ishi (to-day) ala kūsūa iluegheke (<ilue-, walk, + ēghe-, come).	241. From a shopkeeper of the village.	agana (village) alhikishimi-ki-lo.
225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.	i-pu pa-mu pa-nu pa-chepfu anipfu luvai (my father's elder brother's son has taken his younger sister to wife).		

CHĀNG OR MOJUNG.

Page 333, Chāng or Mojung.—The List of Words in this language (see pp. 344ff.) was taken under great difficulties as the tribe was at the time hardly known. Mr. J. H. Hutton, C.I.E., has since then very kindly sent me a corrected list, which I here reproduce. Regarding Mr. Hutton's spelling, it must be explained that in Chāng the length of the vowel in any particular word commonly varies between long and short, according to the speaker or the flow of the sentence. It is hence rarely significant. The signs $\bar{}$ and $\acute{}$ are therefore used only when a vowel is very definitely long or short. Stress is indicated by the acute accent. The letter \grave{a} indicates the sound of the a in 'pant,' and \tilde{a} the u in 'flutter.' The letter \acute{o} , which occurs in a few words, represents an o slightly broader than the o in 'got' perhaps as in 'gone', and shorter than the oa in 'broad.' In this way the a in the word 'Chang' itself, though marked long on p. 333, is not as long as that of the \tilde{a} in 'father.' Mr. Hutton informs me that, as he hears it, the word 'Mojung' would be better spelt 'Mozung.' He adds, in correction of my statement that there is only one small village on the west face of the Patkoi range:—'There are only two Chang villages west of the Dikhu River, and in administered British territory, but the tribe is almost entirely located west of the Patkoi. The principal village is called Tuensang by Changs, and Mozungjāmi by Aos.'

STANDARD LIST OF WORDS AND SENTENCES IN THE CHĀNG NĀGĀ LANGUAGE.

English.	Chāng Nāgā.	English.	Chāng Nāgā.
1. One . . .	chie.	25. Your . . .	kā- (<i>prefixed to noun</i>).
2. Two . . .	nyi.	26. He . . .	han.
3. Three . . .	sām.	27. Of him . . .	hau-e-bu (<i>preceding the noun</i>).
4. Four . . .	lei.	28. His . . .	han- (<i>prefixed to noun</i>).
5. Five . . .	ngau.	29. They . . .	hau-an.
6. Six . . .	lāk.	30. Of them . . .	hau-an-é-bu.
7. Seven . . .	nyet.	31. Their . . .	hau-an-é-bu.
8. Eight . . .	sāt.	32. Hand . . .	yŋk.
9. Nine . . .	guh.	33. Foot . . .	yō.
10. Ten . . .	an.	34. Nose . . .	kung.
11. Twenty . . .	sau-chie.	35. Eye . . .	nyek.
12. Fifty . . .	án-chin'-sām [<i>i.e. the ten short of sixty (sau-sām).</i>]	36. Mouth . . .	sāmpung.
13. Hundred . . .	sau-ngau.	37. Tooth . . .	hau.
14. I . . .	ngo.	38. Ear . . .	nō.
15. Of me . . .	ngé-bu (<i>preceding the noun</i>).	39. Hair . . .	kulo (<i>of head</i>), uwi (<i>of body, or of beasts</i>).
16. My . . .	kā- or kū- (<i>prefixed to noun</i>).	40. Head . . .	khū.
17. We . . .	kānn or kūnn (<i>excluding person addressed</i>), sānn (<i>including the person addressed</i>).	41. Tongue . . .	lishang.
18. Of us . . .	kān-e-bu or kūn-e-bu; sān-e-bu (<i>both preceding the noun</i>).	42. Belly . . .	shímung, shúmung.
19. Our . . .	kā- or kū- (<i>prefixed to noun</i>).	43. Back . . .	tāk.
20. Thou . . .	nō.	44. Iron . . .	nām.
21. Of thee . . .	kā-bu (<i>preceding the noun</i>).	45. Gold . . .	(<i>no word</i>).
22. Thy . . .	kā- (<i>prefixed to noun</i>).	46. Silver . . .	sāmpak-nām (<i>i.e. rupee-iron</i>).
23. You . . .	kānn.	47. Father . . .	apō.
24. Of you . . .	kān-e-bu (<i>preceding the noun</i>).	48. Mother . . .	anyu.

English.	Chāng Nāgā.	English.	Chāng Nāgā.
49. Brother	ajei, ajai (elder); ana (younger).	76. Bird	ao.
50. Sister	anou (elder); ana (younger).	77. Go	hau.
51. Man	māt (human-being); pōsu (male).	78. Eat	shau-; sau- (of rice, when 'rice' is not mentioned).
52. Woman	yaksa.	79. Sit	sāt.
53. Wife	yaksa, yak; chām-pa-bu (housekeeper).	80. Come	lo.
54. Child	nā-shou.	81. Beat	ngām.
55. Son	shou.	82. Stand	luo.
56. Daughter	yaksa shou.	83. Die	hai.
57. Slave	au, mātāu.	84. Give	ku.
58. Cultivator	85. Run	lāng.
59. Herdsman	shátto-námto chūgh pu (one who watches).	86. Up	mūgha.
60. God	87. Near	nyāngbua.
61. Spirit	mūghka (i.e. from the sky).	88. Down	panga.
62. Sun	chanyu.	89. Far	sabu, hego.
63. Moon	lītnyu.	90. Before	te-tanga.
64. Star	káncho hōhu.	91. Behind	paini.
65. Fire	wàn.	92. Who?	au?
66. Water	tei.	93. What?	ai?
67. House	chām.	94. Why?	ai-la?
68. Horse	kori, kuri (i.e. ghōrā, a borrowed word).	95. And	tokē.
69. Cow	masū.	96. But	lan; pa (preceded by particle).
70. Dog	kei.	97. If	-si (enclitic to verb).
71. Cat	tānila (domestic); kām (wild).	98. Yes	hāgh, hōūt, hē.
72. Cock	au-pang (male fowl).	99. No	ūgh, chi ('that is wrong'), aki or agi ('not').
73. Duck	phatak (i.e. bata, a borrowed word).	100. Alas	augh-a.
74. Ass	101. A father	apō chie.
75. Camel	102. Of a father	pō chie-bu (following governing noun).

English.	Chāng Nāgā.	English.	Chāng Nāgā.
103. To a father . . .	pō chie-aitāng, pō chie-chungto.	128. A good woman . . .	yáksa maibu chie.
104. From a father . . .	pō chie-kā.	129. A bad boy . . .	nāshōsi amaibu chie.
105. Two fathers . . .	pō ni.	130. Good women . . .	yáksa maibu shōng.
106. Fathers . . .	pō sie shōng.	131. A bad girl . . .	mātei amaibu chie.
107. Of fathers . . .	pō sie-bu.	132. Good . . .	maibu.
108. To fathers . . .	pō sie-aitāng, pō sie-chungto.	133. Better . . .	kā-bu kei-tōchi ngē-bu kei mai-kō, <i>your dog-than my dog good-is.</i>
109. From fathers . . .	pō sie-kā.	134. Best . . .	pando-to (of all) mai-kō (<i>is good</i>).
110. A daughter . . .	yáksa shō chie.	135. High . . .	sōkpu.
111. Of a daughter . . .	yáksa shō-ē-bu.	136. Higher . . .	-tōchi (<i>than</i>) sōk-kā (<i>is high</i>).
112. To a daughter . . .	yáksa shō-aitang, yáksa shō-chungto.	137. Highest . . .	pando-tōchi (<i>than all</i>) sōk-ke.
113. From a daughter . . .	yáksa shō-kā.	138. A horse . . .	kori (<i>borrowed</i>).
114. Two daughters . . .	yáksa shō ni.	139. A mare . . .	kori pi.
115. Daughters . . .	yáksa shō sie.	140. Horses . . .	kori shōng.
116. Of daughters . . .	yáksa shō sie-bu.	141. Mares . . .	kori pi shōng.
117. To daughters . . .	yáksa shō sie-aitang, yáksa shō sie-chungto.	142. A bull . . .	masū pang chie.
118. From daughters . . .	yáksa shō sie-kā.	143. A cow . . .	masū pi chie.
119. A good man . . .	māt maibu chie.	144. Bulls . . .	masū pang shōng.
120. Of a good man . . .	māt maibu chie-bu.	145. Cows . . .	masū pi shōng.
121. To a good man . . .	māt maibu chie-chungto.	146. A dog . . .	kei chie.
122. From a good man . . .	māt maibu chie-kā.	147. A bitch . . .	kei nyu chie; kei sawa nyu chie (<i>a bitch that has never pupped</i>).
123. Two good men . . .	māt maibu nyi.	148. Dogs . . .	kei shōng.
124. Good men . . .	māt maibu shōng (<i>shōng suggests a considerable number.</i>)	149. Bitches . . .	kei nyu shōng.
125. Of good men . . .	māt maibu shōng-ē-bu.	150. A he goat . . .	lōxn pang chie.
126. To good men . . .	māt maibu shōng-chungto.	151. A female goat . . .	lōxn pi chie; lōxn nyu chie (<i>a big she-goat</i>); lōxn sawa nyu chie (<i>a goat that has not kidded</i>).
127. From good men . . .	māt maibu shōng-kā.	152. Goats . . .	lōxn shōng.

English.	Chāng Nāgā.	English.	Chāng Nāgā.
153. A male deer . . .	meishi pang chie (<i>a barking deer : no word for 'deer' generally</i>).	179. I beat . . .	ngē ngām-ta.
154. A female deer . . .	meishi pi chie ; meishi sawa nyu chie (<i>one that has not brought forth young</i>).	180. Thou beatest . . .	nyē ngām-ta.
155. Deer . . .	meishi shōng.	181. He beats . . .	hau-ē ngām-ta.
156. I am . . .	ngo kia.	182. We beat . . .	kān-ē (<i>or sǎn-ē</i>) ngām-ta.
157. Thou art . . .	nô kia.	183. You beat . . .	kān-ē ngām-ta.
158. He is . . .	hau kia.	184. They beat . . .	hau-an-ē ngām-ta.
159. We are . . .	kānn (<i>or sǎnn</i>) kia.	185. I beat (<i>Past Tense</i>) . . .	ngē ngām-pē.
160. You are . . .	kānn kia.	186. Thou beatest (<i>Past Tense</i>). . .	nyē ngām-pē.
161. They are . . .	hau-an kia.	187. He beat (<i>Past Tense</i>) . . .	hau-ē ngām-pē.
162. I was . . .	ngo kia.	188. We beat (<i>Past Tense</i>) . . .	kān-ē (<i>sǎn-ē</i>) ngām-pē.
163. Thou wast . . .	nô kia.	189. You beat (<i>Past Tense</i>) . . .	kān-ē ngām-pē.
164. He was . . .	hau kia.	190. They beat (<i>Past Tense</i>). . .	hau-an-ē ngām-pē.
165. We were . . .	kānn (<i>sǎnn</i>) kia.	191. I am beating . . .	ngē ngām-ta.
166. You were . . .	kānn kia.	192. I was beating . . .	ngē ngām-pu kia.
167. They were . . .	hau-an kia.	193. I had beaten . . .	ngē ngām-an kia.
168. Be . . .	ki-āshi.	194. I may beat . . .	ngē ngām-labu yingkao (<i>perhaps I shall beat</i>).
169. To be . . .	ki-	195. I shall beat . . .	ngē ngām-labu.
170. Being . . .	ki-jini (<i>while remaining</i>).	196. Thou wilt beat . . .	nyē ngām-labu.
171. Having been . . .	ki-ānyu.	197. He will beat . . .	hau-ē ngām-labu.
172. I may be . . .	ngo ki-lapsām.	198. We shall beat . . .	kān-ē (<i>sǎn-ē</i>) ngām-labu.
173. I shall be . . .	ngo ki-labu.	199. You will beat . . .	kān-ē ngām-labu.
174. I should be . . .	ngo ki-labu kia.	200. They will beat . . .	hau-an-ē ngām-labu.
175. Beat . . .	ngām-āshi.	201. I should beat
176. To beat . . .	ngām-	202. I am beaten . . .	kāto ngām-ta (<i>beats me</i>).
177. Beating . . .	ngām-jini (<i>while beating</i>).	203. I was beaten . . .	kāto ngām-pē.
178. Having beaten . . .	ngām-ānyu.	204. I shall be beaten . . .	kāto ngām-labu.

English.	Chāng Nāgā.	English.	Chāng Nāgā.
205. I go . . .	ngo hau-ta.	225. The son of my paternal uncle is married to his younger sister.	kă-po-ung-bo shō-e hau-bu nā ngā-kē.
206. Thou goest . . .	nô hau-ta.	226. In the house is the saddle of the white horse.	kori thupai-bu jin chām-ā kia (no word for 'saddle').
207. He goes . . .	hau hau-ta.	227. Put the saddle upon his back.	kori-bu thāk jin chīn-āshi.
208. We go . . .	kānn (sānn) hau-ta.	228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.	ngē hau-shō-to li (cane) aibu (much) ngām-pē.
209. You go . . .	kānn hau-ta.	229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.	hau-ē shui-a masū lam-shau-bu (search-eater) chūg-ta (is watching).
210. They go . . .	hau-an hau-ta.	230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.	hau khwo pu-panga kori-thāk-a sāt-ā-kē.
211. I went . . .	ngē hau-kē	231. His elder brother is taller than his elder sister.	hau-jei hau nō-tōchi lō-kē (lō-bu=tall).
212. Thou wentest . . .	nô hau-kē.	232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.	khwo-e-bu (of that) nām (price) nām (rupee) nyi adali (eight anna piece) chie (one).
213. He went . . .	hau hau-kē.	233. My father lives in that small house.	kă-pō chām hām-bu (small) kăni (that) kia.
214. We went . . .	kānn (sānn) hau-kē.	234. Give this rupee to him	nām hō hau-la kū-āshi.
215. You went . . .	kānn hau-kē.	235. Take those rupees from him.	khwo nām hau-kā sung-āshi.
216. They went . . .	hau-an hau-kē.	236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.	hau mai-sho (well) ngām-ānyu (having beaten) lūgh-e (with cresser) kūgh-āshi (bind).
217. Go . . .	hau-āshi.	237. Draw water from the well.	tei-yungla-kā (from water for drinking) tei kuba.
218. Going . . .	hau-jini (while going).	238. Walk before me .	kă-thi (my face) tanga (before) pai-shi (walk).
219. Gone . . .	hau-bu (adjectival).	239. Whose boy comes behind you ?	au-shou kă-paia pai-ta ?
220. What is your name ?	kă-bu nyen au ?	240. From whom did you buy that ?	khwo auka chēk-kē (for chēg-kē)?
221. How old is this horse ?	kori hau pō (year) lating (how many)?	241. From a shopkeeper of the village.	sang-a (in village) nām-seibu-kā (from a trader).
222. How far is it from here to Kohima ?	ha-ka Kohima la lok chie yinkē ?		
223. How many sons are there in your father's house ?	kă-pō-bu chām-ā shou-si lating ki ?		
224. I have walked a long way to-day.	ngo thāt (to-day) sâ-ko pai-kē.		

TĀNGKHUL.

Pages 480ff.—The following corrections to the List of Words in Tāngkhul are made from Mr. Pettigrew's grammar.

STANDARD LIST OF WORDS AND SENTENCES IN THE TĀNGKHUL (UKHRUL) LANGUAGE.

English.	Tāngkhul (Ukhrul).	English.	Tāngkhul (Ukhrul).
1. One	khatka.	26. He	ā.
2. Two	khani.	27. Of him	ā-wui, ā-
3. Three	khathum.	28. His	ā-wui-na (<i>is his</i>).
4. Four	mati.	29. They	ā-thum.
5. Five	phangā.	30. Of them	ā-thum-wui, ā-
6. Six	tharuk.	31. Their	ā-thum-wui.
7. Seven	shini.	32. Hand	pāng.
8. Eight	chishat.	33. Foot	phei.
9. Nine	chiko.	34. Nose	nātāng.
10. Ten	tharā.	35. Eye	mik.
11. Twenty	maga.	36. Mouth	khamor.
12. Fifty	hang phangā.	37. Tooth	hā.
13. Hundred	sbākha.	38. Ear	khanā.
14. I	i.	39. Hair	kui-sam.
15. Of me	i-wui, i-	40. Head	kui.
16. Mine	i-wui-na (<i>is mine</i>).	41. Tongue	male.
17. We	i-thum.	42. Belly	wuk.
18. Of us	i-thum-wui, i-	43. Back	khumkhor.
19. Our	i-thum-wui.	44. Iron	mari.
20. Thou	na.	45. Gold	sinā.
21. Of thee	na-wui, na-	46. Silver	lupa.
22. Thine	na-wui-na (<i>is thine</i>).	47. Father	ā-vā.
23. You	na, na-thum.	48. Mother	ā-va.
24. Of you	na-wui, na-thum-wui, na-	49. Brother	i-shā-chei (<i>elder</i>), āgato (<i>younger</i>).
25. Your	na-wui, na-thum-wui.	50. Sister	ā-chei-va (<i>elder</i>), āgatuiva (<i>younger</i>).

English.	Tāngkhul (Ukhrul).	English.	Tāngkhul (Ukhrul).
51. Man	mayār-nao (<i>male</i>), mi (<i>person</i>).	78. Eat	shei-
52. Woman	sha-nao.	79. Sit	pam-
53. Wife	ā-prei-va.	80. Come	rā-
54. Child	noshinao.	81. Beat	shao-
55. Son	ānao mayārnao.	82. Stand	nganing-
56. Daughter	ānao ngalāva.	83. Die	thi-
57. Slave	rao.	84. Give	mi-
58. Cultivator	lui khavā mi.	85. Run	ngasam-
59. Shepherd	yāo kahoma.	86. Up	ātungshong.
60. God	Varivarā.	87. Near	kangalem.
61. Devil	chipi.	88. Down	āchingshong.
62. Sun	tsimik.	89. Far	katāva.
63. Moon	kachāng.	90. Before	rida.
64. Star	sirā.	91. Behind	ākharang, ākhanuk.
65. Fire	mei.	92. Who ?	khi-pākhala ?
66. Water	tara.	93. What ?	khi ?
67. House	shim.	94. Why ?	khi-sāta ?
68. Horse	sigui.	95. And	angka-la, la.
69. Cow	simuk.	96. But	ka.
70. Dog	fā.	97. If	— akha.
71. Cat	lāmi.	98. Yes	ma.
72. Cock	har vā (<i>hen</i> , har va).	99. No	angga.
73. Duck	vāṇa.	100. Alas	iyāvo.
74. Ass	sigui kathā.	101. A father	āvā ākha.
75. Camel	ut.	102. Of a father	āvā ākha-wui.
76. Bird	vānao.	103. To a father	āvā ākha-li.
77. Go	vā-, tsat-	104. From a father	āvā ākha-wui eina.

English.	Tāngkhul (Ukhrul).	English.	Tāngkhul (Ukhrul).
105. Two fathers . . .	āvā khani.	132. Good . . .	ka-phā.
106. Fathers . . .	āvā bing.	133. Better . . .	phā kamai.
107. Of fathers . . .	āvā bing-wui.	134. Best . . .	phā maikapa.
108. To fathers . . .	āvā bing-li.	135. High . . .	ka-chui.
109. From fathers . . .	āvā bing-wui eina.	136. Higher . . .	chui kamai.
110. A daughter . . .	ānao ngalāva ākha.	137. Highest . . .	chui maikapa.
111. Of a daughter . . .	ānao ngalāva ākha-wui.	138. A horse . . .	sigui ā-vā ākha.
112. To a daughter . . .	ānao ngalāva ākha-li.	139. A mare . . .	sigui ā-lā ākha.
113. From a daughter . . .	ānao ngalāva ākha-wui eina.	140. Horses . . .	sigui ā-vā tā-rāk-kha.
114. Two daughters . . .	ānao ngalāva khani.	141. Mares . . .	sigui ā-lā tā-rāk-kha.
115. Daughters . . .	ānao ngalāva bing.	142. A bull . . .	simuk ā-vā ākha.
116. Of daughters . . .	ānao ngalāva bing-wui.	143. A cow . . .	simuk ā-lā ākha.
117. To daughters . . .	ānao ngalāva bing-li.	144. Bulls . . .	simuk ā-vā tā-rāk-kha.
118. From daughters . . .	ānao ngalāva bing-wui eina.	145. Cows . . .	simuk ā-lā tā-rāk-kha.
119. A good man . . .	mi kaphā ākhana.	146. A dog . . .	fā vā ākha.
120. Of a good man . . .	mi kaphā ākha-wui.	147. A bitch . . .	fā lā ākha.
121. To a good man . . .	mi kaphā ākha-li.	148. Dogs . . .	fā vā tā-rāk-kha.
122. From a good man . . .	mi kaphā ākha-wui eina.	149. Bitches . . .	fā lā tā-rāk-kha.
123. Two good men . . .	mi kaphā khani.	150. A he goat . . .	me vā ākha.
124. Good men . . .	mi kaphā bing.	151. A female goat . . .	me va ākha.
125. Of good men . . .	mi kaphā bing-wui.	152. Goats . . .	me tā-rāk-kha.
126. To good men . . .	mi kaphā bing-li.	153. A male deer . . .	sāngāi ā-vā ākha.
127. From good men . . .	mi kaphā bing-wui eina.	154. A female deer . . .	sāngāi ā-lā ākha.
128. A good woman . . .	shanao kaphā ākhana.	155. Deer . . .	sāngāi tā-rāk-kha.
129. A bad boy . . .	noshinao mayārnao ma-kaphā ākhana.	156. I am . . .	i-na.
130. Good women . . .	shanao kaphā bing.	157. Thou art . . .	na-na.
131. A bad girl . . .	noshinao ngalānao ma-kaphā ākhana.	158. He is . . .	ā-na.

English.	Tāngkhul (Ukhrul).	English.	Tāngkhul (Ukhrul).
159. We are . . .	ithum-na.	189. You beat (<i>Past Tense</i>)	nathumna shao-wa.
160. You are . . .	na-na, nathum-na.	190. They beat (<i>Past Tense</i>)	āthumna shao-wa.
161. They are . . .	āthum-na.	191. I am beating . . .	ina shao-da lai-li.
162. I was . . .	ina sā-sāi.	192. I was beating . . .	ina shao-sāi.
163. Thou wast . . .	nana sā-sāi.	193. I had beaten . . .	ina shao-hāi-ra-sāi.
164. He was . . .	āna sā-sāi.	194. I may beat . . .	ina shao-pāi.
165. We were . . .	ithumna sā-sāi.	195. I shall beat . . .	ina shao-ra, shao-ga.
166. You were . . .	nathumna sā-sāi.	196. Thou wilt beat . . .	nana shao-ra.
167. They were . . .	āthumna sā-sāi.	197. He will beat . . .	āna shao-ra.
168. Be . . .	ngasā-lu, sā-lu.	198. We shall beat . . .	ithumna shao-ra.
169. To be . . .	ka-ngasā.	199. You will beat . . .	nathumna shao-ra.
170. Being . . .	sā-da.	200. They will beat . . .	āthumna shao-ra.
171. Having been . . .	sā-hāi-ra-da.	201. I should beat . . .	ina shao-ra-li.
172. I may be . . .	ina sā-pāi.	202. I am beaten . . .	i-li shao-wa.
173. I shall be . . .	ina sā-ra.	203. I was beaten . . .	i-li shao-sāi.
174. I should be . . .	ina sā-ra-li.	204. I shall be beaten . . .	i-li shao-ra sāra.
175. Beat . . .	shao-lu.	205. I go . . .	i tsat-a.
176. To beat . . .	ka-shao.	206. Thou goest . . .	na tsat-a.
177. Beating . . .	shao-da.	207. He goes . . .	ā tsat-a.
178. Having beaten . . .	shao-hāi-ra-da.	208. We go . . .	ithum tsat-a.
179. I beat . . .	ina shao-wa.	209. You go . . .	nathum tsat-a.
180. Thou beatest . . .	nana shao-wa.	210. They go . . .	āthum tsat-a.
181. He beats . . .	āna shao-wa.	211. I went . . .	i tsat-tu-wa.
182. We beat . . .	ithumna shao-wa.	212. Thou wentest . . .	na tsat-tu-wa.
183. You beat . . .	nathumna shao-wa.	213. He went . . .	ā tsat-tu-wa.
184. They beat . . .	āthumna shao-wa.	214. We went . . .	ithum tsat-tu-wa.
185. I beat (<i>Past Tense</i>) . . .	ina shao-wa.	215. You went . . .	nathum tsat-tu-wa.
186. Thou beatest (<i>Past Tense</i>). . .	nana shao-wa.	216. They went . . .	āthum tsat-tu-wa.
187. He beat (<i>Past Tense</i>) . . .	āna shao-wa.	217. Go . . .	tsat-lu.
188. We beat (<i>Past Tense</i>) . . .	ithumna shao-wa.	218. Going . . .	tsat-ta.
		219. Gone . . .	tsat-ho wa.

VOLUME V—PART I.

BENGALI.

Page 11.—During the twenty years that have elapsed since this volume was published, much progress has been made in the study of the Bengali language and its early literature. For this we are chiefly indebted to the labours of the Baṅgiya Sāhitya Parishad, a society founded in Calcutta, which has conducted enquiries into both these branches of study on a thoroughly scientific basis. For much of what follows, I am indebted to one of its most learned members, Professor Sunīti Kumār Chatterji, D.Lit. (Lond.).

Regarding the origin of the name 'Bengal', which is discussed on this page, it is now established that, in medieval Bengali literature, the word 'Baṅgāla' (বঙ্গাল) was employed to denote what is now Eastern Bengal. The Province of Bengal consisted originally of four tracts :—

- | | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------------|---------------|
| 1. Varēndra or Gauḍa, | corresponding to what is now | North Bengal. |
| 2. Rāḍha, | " " | West Bengal. |
| 3. Baṅga, | " " | East Bengal. |
| 4. Samatāṭa | " " | The Delta. |

In medieval times, in Bengali literature, the word 'Baṅgāla' began to be used as an equivalent for 'Baṅga'.

As early as the closing centuries of the first millennium A. D., the meaning of 'Gauḍa' became extended so as to include West Bengal, that is to say, it was used to connote Varēndra and Rāḍha together, and 'Samatāṭa' and 'Baṅga' both came to be used as synonyms for South-East and East Bengal, respectively. During the same period, in Western India, 'Baṅga' became loosely applied to all Bengal, and this application gradually became accepted to some extent in Bengal itself, and helped to the adoption in modern times of the western term 'Baṅgāla' as the national name. On the other hand, West Bengal, with Nadia for its centre, gradually became known as 'Gauḍa', and thus, in early, — pre-Moslem, — inscriptions, Gauḍa and Baṅga came to be used as terms for West and East Bengal, respectively.

At the present day, Bengalis call the whole country 'Bāṅgālā'¹ or 'Bāṅglā' or 'Bāṅgālā-dēś', in each case, be it observed, the name of the country ending in a long ā. This term includes *all* Bengal, North, South, East, and West. But when they say 'Bāṅgāl-dēś', without the final ā of Bāṅgālā, they mean East Bengal,—not any specific tract, but the whole area in which the language is characterized by the peculiarities noted in this Survey as belonging to Eastern Bengali. A Bengali-speaker, no matter where he comes from, is called a 'Bāṅgālī', but a man from East Bengal is called a 'Bāṅgāl'. The forms 'Bāṅgālā', 'Bāṅgālī', with the wider connotation, are no doubt borrowed from the Hindōstānī (or Western Indian) 'Bangālā' and 'Bangālī', while the other forms, without the final ā or ī, are older, being derived normally from the medieval 'Baṅgāla', and retaining the older connotation of that word. At the present

¹ All these words may indifferently be spelt with *āg* or with *ā*. Thus, Bāṅgālā বাঙ্গালা or Bāṅālā বাঙালা, Bāṅglā বাঙলা or Bāṅglā বাঙলা, and so on. So also, lower down, we may have Bāṅgāl বাঙ্গাল or Bāṅāl বাঙাল for East Bengal.

day 'Bāngāl' has become a term of contempt. A West Bengali speaker habitually employs it in a disparaging sense, although he would call himself a 'Bāngālī' with the final *ī*; and sometimes an East Bengali person will resent the use of the word 'Bāngāl', if accompanied by a tone of voice or gesture of contempt, although he will not object to his patois and his part of the province being called, respectively, 'Bāngāl-bhāshā' and 'Bāngāl-dés'. This contemptuous use of the word 'Bāngāl' is old. It is found in Western Bengal writings of the 12th century¹, and its use to denote East Bengal carries on the tradition of an earlier state of affairs, in which the employment of the word Bāngāla in this sense is attested by epigraphic and literary remains.

All this would seem to show that the mysterious 'City of Bengala' of the Portuguese writers was probably simply the city of Dacca.

Page 14, line 11 of Text from below. To the remarks on the Sanskritization, as practised twenty years ago, I gladly add the following account by Professor Sunīti Kumār Chatterji of the present state of affairs:—

During the last two or three decades, there has been quite a revolution in literary Bengali. Bankim's later works already employ a very vigorous style which is more true to the native genius of the language than before; and (except of course in the writings of a clan of Sanskritists) there has been a constant attempt to bring the literary language more in line with the colloquial. Meanwhile the Calcutta colloquial—that used by educated people in West Bengal—rapidly gained ground, Calcutta being the intellectual centre of the Bengali nation, and students from every part of Bengal flocking thither in their thousands every year. This fact has brought about a linguistic unity in Bengal such as was never known before. The upper classes everywhere speak or try to speak the language of the educated people of Calcutta and of the surrounding districts, and the old dialectal peculiarities, at least in the speech of the upper classes, are fast vanishing. We have thus now a standard colloquial which is understood by all classes, and is spoken everywhere by the educated.

Within recent years there has arisen a strong movement to employ this standard colloquial for purposes of ordinary literature. It has a grammar more advanced than that of the literary language, or *sādhū bhāshā*. Thus কৱিত্তে *karitechhe* has become ক'হে *kōrchhe* or ক'ছে *kōchchhe*, and কৱিয়া *kariyā* has become ক'রে *kōre*; a large amount of colloquial idioms and words are employed, and the syntax is not the stiff, lifeless syntax of High Bengali, but is more flexible, more vivid, and more true to the native spirit. Already in the drama, in poetry, and in most novels, the standard colloquial has obtained a dominant position, but in literary prose there is still a very numerous class of writers who continue to employ only the forms of High Bengali,—forms which represent the state of things in the speech of three or four centuries ago.

While the Standard (Calcutta) Colloquial has deviated considerably from the old form, the East Bengal dialects are on the other hand more Conservative, and preserve to a greater extent the forms of the old language; but it must also be said that among the advocates of the employment of the Standard Colloquial for all literature, there are quite a number of writers from East Bengal who, in speaking, have not even wholly got rid of their East Bengal accent. In short, we have at the present day two forms of Bengali in actual employment,—the *sādhū bhāshā*, which is *sādhū* only in sticking to an older form of grammar, but is not nearly so Sanskritized as it was under the auspices of the Pandits of the College of Fort William and their successors,—and the *chalitā bhāshā*. Sir Rabindranāth Tagore uses both with equal strength. . . . In the Standard Colloquial, as employed in writing, there is ordinarily no attempt to employ any standardized or systematized spelling. Those who are more careful in this matter try to make the spelling true to the pronunciation by inserting an apostrophe, which is intended to show that an *i*-sound has been dropped and that the preceding *a* has been changed to *ō*; e. g. করে, he does, is *kōre* in both the literary and colloquial, while কৱিয়া, having done,—the *kōriyā* of literary language,—has become ক'রে, *kōre*, in the colloquial, and this *kōre* is written ক'রে, or কোরে, and by careless writers simply করে, which may be confused with করে, he does. So হইল, *hōila* he became, of the literary language, should, for the colloquial, be written হ'ল, *hōlo*, but we find it quite frequently written হোলো, হলো, হোল, or হল.

¹ For instance, Sarvānanda, a writer of West Bengal, in a commentary (dated 1159) on the dictionary called the 'Amarakōśa' in explaining the word *sidhmālā*, dried fish, says with evident contempt, that it is the kind of thing which people who conduct themselves like Bāngālas enjoy.

Page 16, line 19.—Bengali Literature. Attention must here be drawn to an important book which has been described in two articles in the Journal of the Bangiya Sahitya Parishad for 1323 B. S. (1916 A. D.), and by Father Hosten in Vol. IX of 'Bengal Past and Present'. It is entitled *Crepar Xastrer*¹ (i. e., *Shāstrēr*) *Orth Bhed* or 'The Exposition of the Doctrine of Mercy', an old Bengali account of the Roman Catholic faith composed by Father Frey Manoel da Assumpção, Portuguese Augustinian Missionary at Nagori, Bhawal, near Dacca. It was composed throughout in the Bengali language written in the Roman character on each left-hand page with a Portuguese version facing it on the right, in the year 1734 A. D., and was printed in Lisbon in 1743. A mutilated copy of it has survived in the library of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. This, with the same author's Bengali Vocabulary (see p. 23) and a catechism, both printed in the same year, are probably the first books ever printed in the Bengali language. The *Crepar Xastrer Orth Bhed* is of great importance for the history of that form of speech, for, owing to its being printed phonetically in the Roman character, it gives a very clear idea of the Dacca pronunciation of Bengali in the middle of the 18th century.

I have said that this book is probably one of the first Bengali books printed, but it is possible that there may have been one earlier. I owe to the kindness of Dr. L. Barnett of the British Museum the following translation of an extract from the report of Francisco Fernandez (died A. D. 1602) to his Jesuit superiors written in 1599 from the city of Siripura². He says :—

'The children [at the port of Siripura] came out to greet us, singing in procession and begging us most earnestly to teach them and indoctrinate them, because they were idle and lost for lack of a teacher. Their entreaty moved us so much that, being unable ourselves to attend to their instruction, we arranged with one of those in our company that he should set up a school and undertake the [teaching] of these children ; and this was the first, and not the least important, act of our Mission. And in order that it might be more beneficial, I composed a short Catechism of the mysteries of our faith by way of questions and answers, which Father Domingo de Sosa translated into their language, and it is profitable not only to the children but also to the adults and to the Portuguese themselves ; for they teach thereby the Christian doctrine to their male and female slaves and to the people of the land who are subject to them.'

This must be the oldest European work in Bengali, but I do not know whether it was ever printed. Fernandez wrote this letter in January 1599, and embarked on his voyage from Cochin to Bengal in May 1598. So the catechism was composed, and translated by De Sosa, in 1598.

¹ The Portuguese represented the *sh*-sound of Bengali by *x*.

² Taken from Bartholome Alcazar's *Chrono-historia de la Compañia de Jesus, en la Provincia de Toledo*, 2 Parte (Madrid, 1710), pp. 290ff.

OṚIYĀ.

Page 370.—Section dealing with Oṛiyā literature. Babu Monmohan Chakravarti has given me the following fuller note, which should be substituted for the account on this page taken from Beames' Comparative Grammar :—

Excepting a few Bamsābalis, or genealogical works, the entire Oṛiyā literature is in poetry. The existing works do not go beyond the 16th century A. D.; but Oṛiyā words and sentences have been found in inscriptions of the 14th century. The earliest compositions appear to have been lost.

Among Pre-British productions the earliest are songs and religious translations. The songs are chiefly in the form of *chautisās*, or groups of four or more couplets, but occasionally in *chhandas* (ordinary verses) or *chhapois* (groups of six couplets). As a rule they deal with the love of Rādhā and Kṛishṇa, and only rarely with human love. Of the religious poems the most popular are :—

- i. The *Bhāgabata* of Jagannātha Dāsa (first half of 16th century).
- ii. The *Rābāṇa* [*Rāmāyaṇa*] of Baḷarāma Dāsa (*circa* first quarter of the 16th century).
- iii. The *Bhārata* of Sārōlā Dāsa (not earlier than the first half of the 16th century).
- iv. The *Harabāṇsa* of Achyutānanda Dāsa (beginning of the 16th century).

These poems are not translations, but summaries and free adaptations of the Sanskrit originals. They, and especially the *Bhāgabata*, exercised and still exercise an immense influence on the Oṛiyā intellect and feelings ; and, though poetically not of a high order, they paved the way for the later poets.

Among the later poets the chief names are (i) Dīna-kṛushṇa Dāsa, (ii) Upēndra Bhañja, and (iii) Abhimanyu Sāmantasimhāra. Their poetry more or less follows the later Sanskrit classics, and adopts the rules of Sanskrit *alankāras*.

Dīna-kṛushṇa Dāsa preceded Upēndra Bhañja and composed the well-known poem the *Rasa-kallōla*, which deals with the early life of Kṛishṇa at Vrindāvana and Mathurā. Every line in it begins with the letter *ka*.

Upēndra Bhañja, who flourished towards the end of the 17th century, belonged to the royal family of Gumsura, a petty hill state in the Ganjam District in Madras. With his father, he was driven out in a family war, and is said to have settled in Nayāgarh another petty hill state, now in Orissa. The most celebrated of the Oṛiyā poets, and the most prolific, his fame chiefly rests on his two fictional poems, the *Lābanyabatī* and the *Kōṭibrahmāṇḍasundarī*, both called after the names of their heroines, and on the *Baidēhisabilāsa*, which is based on the *Rāmāyaṇa*. He composed in all forty-two works, of which at least twenty were based on fiction. His poems forms storehouses of rhetorical excellences and show a master's hand in vocabulary and word selection ; but, by the use of innumerable Sanskrit synonyms and verbal formations, his verse has been made unintelligible and has further been disfigured by obscene descriptions.

Abhimanyu Sāmantasimhāra (A. D. 1758-1806) also came of a Zamīndār's family. He belonged to the Cuttack District, and is said to have died at Vrindāvana as a Vaishṇava

ascetic. He is credited with six poems, of which the best known is the *Bidagdha-chintāmaṇi*, based on the Sanskrit *Vidagdha-mādhava* of Rūpa Gōsvāmi, the disciple of Chaitanya. No other Oṛiyā poem contains so many rhetorical gems or so much abstract poetry as this work.

A century of British occupation and consequent peace has not yet much stimulated Oṛiyā composition. Among recent publications a few poems by Rai Radhanath Ray Bahadur, late Inspector of Schools, seem noticeable, but the bulk of modern works consists of doggrel or of translations or adaptations from English or Bengali. [This was written in 1900.—G. A. G.]

Page 441.—The following Standard List of Words and Sentences in Oṛiyā has been prepared by Babu Monmohan Chakravarti. It is more correct, and is in a more colloquial style than that given on pp. 441ff.

STANDARD LIST OF WORDS AND SENTENCES IN THE OṚIYĀ (COLLOQUIAL) LANGUAGE.

English.	Oṛiyā.	English.	Oṛiyā.
1. One	ēka, guṭē, gōṭiē.	26. He	sē.
2. Two	dui.	27. Of him	tāra.
3. Three	ṭini.	28. His	tēra.
4. Four	chāri.	29. They	sēmānē.
5. Five	pācha.	30. Of them	sēmānaṅkara.
6. Six	chha.	31. Their	sēmānaṅkara.
7. Seven	sāta.	32. Hand	hāta.
8. Eight	āṭha.	33. Foot	gōra.
9. Nine	nāa.	34. Nose	nāka.
10. Ten	daśa.	35. Eye	ākhi.
11. Twenty	kōriē.	36. Mouth	muha.
12. Fifty	pachāśa.	37. Tooth	dāta.
13. Hundred	śaē.	38. Ear	kāna.
14. I	mū.	39. Hair	bāla, kēśa.
15. Of me	mōra.	40. Head	munḍa.
16. Mine	mōra.	41. Tongue	jibha.
17. We	āmmānē.	42. Belly	pēṭa.
18. Of us	āmmānaṅkara.	43. Back	piṭhi.
19. Our	āmmānaṅkara.	44. Iron	luhā.
20. Thou	tu.	45. Gold	sunā.
21. Of thee	tōra.	46. Silver	rūpā.
22. Thine	tōra.	47. Father	bōpā, bāpa.
23. You	tumē.	48. Mother	bau ; (grandmother) mā.
24. Of you	tumbhara, (not respectful) tōra.	49. Brother	bhāi, (among Brāhmaṇas) nanā.
25. Your	tumbhara, (not respectful) tōra.	50. Sister	bhaūpi, (among Brāhmaṇas) nāpi, (among lower classes, especially in Puri) apā.

English.	Oṛiyā.	English.	Oṛiyā.
51. Man . . .	manisa (homo); marda (vir).	78. Eat . . .	khā.
52. Woman . . .	tillā; (female) māikiniā.	79. Sit . . .	bas.
53. Wife . . .	māipa.	80. Come . . .	ās.
54. Child . . .	pilā.	81. Beat . . .	mār.
55. Son . . .	pua.	82. Stand . . .	ṭhiā hō.
56. Daughter . . .	jhiā.	83. Die . . .	mar.
57. Slave . . .	dāsa.	84. Give . . .	dē.
58. Cultivator . . .	chashā.	85. Run . . .	daūr.
59. Shepherd . . .	mēṇḍha-rakhuāḷa.	86. Up . . .	uparē.
60. God . . .	Diā.	87. Near . . .	pākhē.
61. Devil . . .	asura, Saītān.	88. Down . . .	talē.
62. Sun . . .	surja.	89. Far . . .	dūra.
63. Moon . . .	chāḍa.	90. Before . . .	āgē.
64. Star . . .	tārā, tarā.	91. Behind . . .	pachhē.
65. Fire . . .	niā.	92. Who ? . . .	kiē ?
66. Water . . .	pāṇi.	93. What ? . . .	kaṇa, (in Balasore) kisa
67. House . . .	ghara.	94. Why ? . . .	kāhīki, kimpā ?
68. Horse . . .	ghōṛā.	95. And . . .	ēbang, o.
69. Cow . . .	gāi.	96. But . . .	kintu.
70. Dog . . .	kukkura.	97. If . . .	jēbē.
71. Cat . . .	bilēi.	98. Yes . . .	hā.
72. Cock . . .	kukurā.	99. No . . .	nāhī.
73. Duck . . .	batak, hāsa.	100. Alas . . .	hāya.
74. Ass . . .	gadha.	101. A father . . .	ēka bapa.
75. Camel . . .	ōṭa.	102. Of a father . . .	ēka bāpa-ra.
76. Bird . . .	chaṛhēi.	103. To a father . . .	ēka bāpa-ku.
77. Go . . .	jā- (root).	104. From a father . . .	ēka bāpa-ṭhāru.

English.	Oṛiyā.	English.	Oṛiyā.
105. Two fathers . . .	dui bāpa.	132. Good . . .	bhala.
106. Fathers . . .	bāpa-mānē.	133. Better . . .	apēkhyā kṛta bhala.
107. Of fathers . . .	bāpa-mānaṅkara.	134. Best . . .	sabu-ṭhāru bhala.
108. To fathers . . .	bāpa mānaṅku.	135. High . . .	ūchā.
109. From fathers . . .	bāpa-mānaṅka-ṭhāru.	136. Higher . . .	apēkhyā kṛta ūchā.
110. A daughter . . .	jhia-ṭiē.	137. Highest . . .	sabu-ṭhāru ūchā.
111. Of a daughter . . .	jhia-ṭiē-ra.	138. A horse . . .	gōṭiē ghōṛā.
112. To a daughter . . .	jhia-ṭiē-ku.	139. A mare . . .	gōṭiē ghōṛī.
113. From a daughter . . .	jhia-ṭiē-ṭhāru.	140. Horses . . .	ghōṛā-mānē.
114. Two daughters . . .	jōṛiē jhia.	141. Mares . . .	ghōṛī-mānē.
115. Daughters . . .	jhia-mānē.	142. A bull . . .	gōṭāē saṇḍha.
116. Of daughters . . .	jhia-mānaṅkara.	143. A cow . . .	gōṭāē gāi.
117. To daughters . . .	jhia-mānaṅku.	144. Bulls . . .	saṇḍha-mānē.
118. From daughters . . .	jhia-mānaṅka-ṭhāru.	145. Cows . . .	gāi-sabu, gāi-mānē.
119. A good man . . .	jaṇē bhala lōka.	146. A dog . . .	gōṭiē kukkura.
120. Of a good man . . .	jaṇē bhala lōkara.	147. A bitch . . .	gōṭiē māi kukkura.
121. To a good man . . .	jaṇē bhala lōka-ku.	148. Dogs . . .	kukkura-sabu, kukkura-mānē.
122. From a good man . . .	jaṇē bhala lōka-ṭhāru.	149. Bitches . . .	māi kukkura-sabu.
123. Two good men . . .	dui jaṇa bhala lōka.	150. A he goat . . .	gōṭiē aṇḍirā chhēli.
124. Good men . . .	bhala lōka-mānē.	151. A female goat . . .	gōṭiē māi chhēli.
125. Of good men . . .	bhala lōka-mānaṅkara.	152. Goats . . .	chhēli-sabu.
126. To good men . . .	bhala lōka-mānaṅku.	153. A male deer . . .	gōṭāē aṇḍirā harīṇa.
127. From good men . . .	bhala lōka-mānaṅka-ṭhāru.	154. A female deer . . .	gōṭāē māi harīṇa.
128. A good woman . . .	jaṇē bhala tillā.	155. Deer . . .	harīṇa.
129. A bad boy . . .	jaṇē manda bālaka.	156. I am . . .	mū huē, mū achhi; āmē hēū, āmē achhū.
130. Good women . . .	bhala tillā-mānē.	157. Thou art . . .	tu hua, achhu; tumē hua, achha.
131. A bad girl . . .	gōṭiē manda bālīkā.	158. He is . . .	sē huē, achhi.

English.	Oṛiyā.	English.	Oṛiyā.
159. We are . . .	āmmānē hēñ, achhñ.	186. Thou beatest (<i>Past Tense</i>).	tu mārīlu.
160. You are . . .	tumē hua, achha.	187. He beat (<i>Past Tense</i>) .	sē mārīlā.
161. They are . . .	sēmānē huantī, achhantī.	188. We beat (<i>Past Tense</i>) .	āmmānē mārīlñ.
162. I was . . .	mñ thili.	189. You beat (<i>Past Tense</i>)	tumē mārila.
163. Thou wast . . .	tu thilu.	190. They beat (<i>Past Tense</i>)	sēmānē mārīlē.
164. He was . . .	sē thilā.	191. I am beating . . .	mñ mārūachhi.
165. We were . . .	āmmānē thilñ.	192. I was beating . . .	mñ māruthili.
166. You were . . .	tumē thila.	193. I had beaten . . .	mñ mārithili.
167. They were . . .	sēmānē thilē.	194. I may beat . . .	mñ mārī pāri.
168. Be . . .	hua.	195. I shall beat . . .	mñ mārībi.
169. To be . . .	hēbā-ku.	196. Thou wilt beat . . .	tu mārību.
170. Being . . .	hēu.	197. He will beat . . .	sē mārība.
171. Having been . . .	hōi.	198. We shall beat . . .	āmmānē mārībñ.
172. I may be . . .	mñ hōi pāri.	199. You will beat . . .	tumē mārība.
173. I shall be . . .	mñ hēbi.	200. They will beat . . .	sēmānē mārībē.
174. I should be . . .	mōra hēbā uchita.	201. I should beat . . .	mōra mārībā uchita.
175. Beat . . .	māra.	202. I am beaten . . .	mñ māra khāichhi.
176. To beat . . .	mārībā-ku.	203. I was beaten . . .	mñ māra khāithili.
177. Beating . . .	māru.	204. I shall be beaten . . .	mñ māra khāibi.
178. Having beaten . . .	mārī.	205. I go . . .	mñ jāñ.
179. I beat . . .	mñ mārē, mārī.	206. Thou goest . . .	tu jāu.
180. Thou beatest . . .	tu māru.	207. He goes . . .	sē jāñ.
181. He beats . . .	sē mārē.	208. We go . . .	āmmānē jāñ.
182. We beat . . .	āmmānē mārñ.	209. You go . . .	tumē jāa.
183. You beat . . .	tumē māra.	210. They go . . .	sēmānē jānti, jāti.
184. They beat . . .	sēmānē mārāntī.	211. I went . . .	mñ jāithili, galī.
185. I beat (<i>Past Tense</i>) .	mñ mārīli.	212. Thou wentest . . .	tu jāithilu, galu.

English.	Oṛiyā.	English.	Oṛiyā.
213. He went . . .	sē jāithilā, galā.	227. Put the saddle upon his back.	tā piṭhi-rē jin kasha.
214. We went . . .	āmmānē jāithilū, galū.	228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.	mū tā pua-ku bahut bēta-rē māra mārichhi.
215. You went . . .	tumē jāithila, gala.	229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.	sē pahāra uparē gōru charāu-achhi.
216. They went . . .	sēmānē jāithilē, galē.	230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.	sē gachha-mūlē gōṭiē ghōṛā uparē basi-achhi.
217. Go . . .	jāa.	231. His brother is taller than his sister.	tāra bhāi tāra bhaūni-ṭhāru dōnga.
218. Going . . .	jāu.	232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.	tāra dām aṛhēi ṭānkā.
219. Gone . . .	jāi.	233. My father lives in that small house.	mōra bāpa sēhi sāna gharāṭi-rē rahē.
220. What is your name ?	tōra nā kaapa ?	234. Give this rupee to him	tā-ku ē ṭānkā-ṭi dia.
221. How old is this horse?	ē ghōṛāra bayasa kētē ?	235. Take those rupees from him.	tā-ṭhāru sē ṭānkā-sabu nia.
222. How far is it from here to Kashmir ?	Kāsmīra ē-ṭhāru kētē dūra?	236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.	tā-ku khub māra ē daūdi-rē bāndha.
223. How many sons are there in your father's house ?	tōra bāpa-gharē kētēli pua achhanti ?	237. Draw water from the well.	kua-ru pāni kārha.
224. I have walked a long way to-day.	mū āji bēsi bāṭa chālīchhi.	238. Walk before me .	mō āga-rē chāla.
225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.	mōra khurūtā-pua bhāi tāra bhaūni-ku bibhā hōiachhi.	239. Whose boy comes behind you ?	tō pachha-rē kāhā pua āsu-achhi ?
226. In the house is the saddle of the white horse.	dhalā ghōṛāra jin gharē achhi.	240. From whom did you buy that ?	kāhā-ṭhāru tā-ku kinila ?
		241. From a shopkeeper of the village.	gāra janē dōkāni-ṭhāru.

VOLUME VI.

Page 62.—Specimen II of the Awadhī spoken in Lucknow District. In a review of this Volume of the Survey in 'Saraswati', a magazine published in Allahabad, for May, 1905, the specimens of the Awadhī of Lucknow are criticized as incorrect, and the following alternative version of the second specimen is offered. It is from the pen of Paṇḍit Śyām Bihārī Miśra, whose home is in that District:—

[No. 6.]

INDO-ARYAN FAMILY.

MEDIATE GROUP.

EASTERN HINDĪ.

AWADHĪ DIALECT.

(DISTRICT, LUCKNOW.)

याक गाँव मँ याकै लम्बरदार के नान्हिसरौ बिटिया रहै । जब वहिकी उमिरि खारा सचह बर्स कि मै तब लम्बरदार क वहि के बियाह कि फिकिरि बाढ़ी । वहे बेरिया नाऊ बाँमन क बोलाय क लरिका ढूँढ़े पठझनि । थोरे दिनन मँ एकु लरिका मिला । वहि से बिटेवा क बनावन्तु बना और बाँमनु पूँछा ग औ बियाहे कि तयारी मै । लरिका क बापु आवा औ लेय देय क बतकहाव होय लाग । हजार रुपया बहुत कहै सुने ठीक भ । तब लम्बरदार राजौ खुसी ते घरै गे औ बरात क दिगु बदा ग । दुलहा क बापु पन्द्रह हजार बराती लै कै बड़ी धूम धाम ते दुलहिनि के घरै आवा और दुवारे कि चारु होय लागि । होम दच्छिना के माँगे मँ पण्डित से तकरार छै गै औ लाठी चलै लागि । बहुत मनई दूनों कैती घायल भे । तब बरात रिसाय चली । वहे बेरिया गाँव के भले मानुस एकट्ठा छै कै बरात मनाय लाये । चौथे दिन बिवाहु भ औ बराती ल्वाग भातु बदार खुसी ते खाझनि औ बिदा छै कै अपने घरै आये ॥

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

Yāk-gāw-mā yākai-lambardār-ke nānhisārī biṭiyā rahai. Jab wahi-kī
One-village-in one-landlord-of little daughter was. When her
 umiri swārā-satrah-bars-ki bhai, tab lambardār-ka wahi-kē-biyāh-ki
age sixteen-seventeen-years-of became, then the-landlord-to her-marriage-of
 phikiri bārhi. Wahē-beriyā nāū-bāman-ka bolāy-ka larikā
anxiety increased. At-that-time barber-brāhman-to called-having a-boy
 dhūṛhai paṭhaiṇi. Thōrē-dinan-mē ēku larikā milā. Wahi-sē
to-search-for he-sent. A-few-days-in one boy was-found. Him-with
 biṭewā-ka banābantu banā, auru bāmanu pūchhā-ga au biyāhē-ki
the-girl-of horoscope agreed, and the-brāhman was-consulted and marriage-of
 tayārī bhai. Larikā-ka bāpu āwā, au lēy-dēy-ka
arrangement took-place. The-boy-of father came, and taking-giving-of
 bat-kahāw hōy-lāg. Hajār rupayā bahutu kahē sunē
word-saying to-be-began. A-thousand rupees much on-talking on-hearing
 ṭhik bha. Tab lambardār rāji-khusī-tē gharai gē au
settled became. Then the-landlord pleasure-with to-house went and
 barāt-ka dinu badā-ga. Dul^hhā-ka bāpu pandrah
wedding-procession-of day fixed-became. Bridegroom-of father fifteen
 hajār barātī lai-kai, baṛī-dhūm-dhām-tē
thousand members-of-procession taken-having, great-pomp-show-with
 dul^hhini-kē-gharai āwā, auru duwārē-ki cāru hōy-lāgi.
to-bride's-house came, and doorway-of ceremony to-be-began.
 Hōm-dachchhinā-kē-māgai-mā paṇḍit-sē takrār hwai-gai, au lāṭhī
Fire-sacrifice-gift-of-demanding-in the-priest-with dispute occurred, and bludgeons
 chalai-lāgi. Bahut manāī dūnāū-kaitī ghāyal bhē. Tab
to-be-wielded-began. Many men both-sides wounded became. Then
 barāt risāy chali. Wahē-beriyā gāw-kē bhalē-mānus
wedding-party being-angry departed. At-that-time the-village-of good-men
 yakatṭhā hwai-kai barāt manāy-lāyē. Chauthē-din
together become-having the-marriage-party appeased. On-the-fourth-day
 biwāhu bha, au barātī-lwāg bhātu-barhār khusī-tē
the-marriage took-place, and procession-people rice-great-food pleasure-with
 khāini, au , bidā hwai-kai apⁿē-gharai āyē.
ate, and leave-taking taken-place-having to-their-own-house came.

Page 86, l. 10.—I say here that the Awadhi of Rae Bareli closely resembles that of the west of Partabgarh. The writer of the review of this volume of the Survey in 'Saraswatī' for May, 1905, who states that he has lived for thirty-seven years in Rae Bareli and speaks the dialect as his native tongue, writes that this is true only for those parts of Rae Bareli that adjoin Partabgarh. He states that elsewhere not only is it different, but is the centre of the tract the language of which is rightly named Baiswārī (see page 9). As a specimen of this 'Baiswārī', as spoken in other parts of Rae Bareli, he gives the following version of the specimen given on pp. 84 and 85 for West Partabgarh. It will be seen that there are considerable differences :—

INDO-ARYAN FAMILY.

MEDIATE GROUP.

EASTERN HINDI.

AWADHĪ DIALECT.

RAE BAREIL.

याकन के घर माँ कथा होति रहै । उन गाँव भरे का न्यौता दीन रहै । सुनवैयन माँ एकु अहिरौ रहै । कथा सुने की बेरिया वहु रावा बहुत करै । जी पण्डित कथा बाँचति रहै उइ वहि का प्रेमी जानि कै निकी तना बैठावै औ खुब खातिर करै । याक दिन पण्डित पूँछेन कि भगानि भाई तुम यतना रावति काहे का हो । तुम का का जानि परत है । यह सुनि कै अहिरवा औरौ ज्वार ज्वार रावै लाग । वह ब्वाला कि महाराज मोरे एकु भैंसि बियानि रहै । वह नजखाय गै औ पड़ौना का नगच्याय न देइ । पड़ौना दिन भरि चिह्नान औ संभली जून मरि गा । वही की तना पण्डित तुमहूँ दिन भरि चिह्नाति हो । यहि ते महिँ का डेरु लागत है कि कतौ तुमहूँ ना वही की नाहिँत मरि जाव ॥

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

Yākan-kē	ghar-mā	kathā	hōti-rahai.	Un
One(-man)-of	the-house-in	a(-religious)-recital	was-taking-place.	He
gāw-bharē-kā	nyautā	din-rahai.	Sunawaiyan-mā	ēku Ahirau
the-whole-village-to	invitation	given-had.	The-audience-among	one cowherd-also
rahai.	Kathā	sunai-ki-beriyā	wahu rwāwā	bahut karai.
was.	The-recital	at-the-time-of-hearing	he weeping	much made.
What	paṇḍit	kathā bāchati	rahaī, ui wahi-kā	prēmī jāni-kai
Paṇḍit	recital	reading	was, he him	of-a-religious-turn-of-mind
considering	niki-tanā	baiṭhāwāī	au khub khātir	karaī. Yāk din
in-a-good-way	made-him-sit	and much	respect made.	One day the-Paṇḍit
pūchen	ki, 'bhagāni	bhāī,	tum yat'nā	rwāwati kāhē-kā
asked	that,	'Sir	brother,	you so-much weeping
why	are?	You	kā kā jāni-parat-hai?	Yah suni-kai
what	what	understand?	This heard-having	the-cowherd
still-more	violently	to-weep-began.	He said	that,
'Reverend-Sir,	to-me	one she-buffalo	biyāni-rahai.	Wah najaryāy-gai
calved-had.	She	became-sick	and the-calf	to-approach
not	allowed.			

Paraunā din-bhari chillān au sājhalī-jūn mari-gā. Wahī-kī tanā,
The-calf the-whole-day lowed and at-evening-time died. This-of manner,
 Paṇḍit, tum'hū din-bhari chillāti-hau. Yahi-tē mahī-kā dāru
O-Paṇḍit, you-also the-whole-day lowing-art. This-from me-to fear
 lāgat-hai, ki kataū tum'hū nā wahī-kī nāhīt mari-jāw.
seizes, that by-chance you-also not it-of like may-die.'

The Free Translation is as on p. 83, except that in this version it is not stated that it was the Paṇḍit who had issued the invitation to the recitation. This is correct, for such an invitation is not issued by the Paṇḍit reciter, but by the householder who engages him for the ceremony.

Page 185.—As noted in the Addenda Minora to page 26, a new edition of Mr. Hīrālāl's Chhattisgarhī Grammar, was brought out in 1921, under the editorship of Paṇḍit Lōchan Prasād Kāvya-vinōd. That gentleman has very kindly sent me the following version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, in the Chhattisgarhī spoken in the District of Raipur, which has been carefully revised by scholars of that locality. It may therefore be taken as a correct example of at least one form of that dialect, which, of course, varies from place to place, and also according to the personal equation of the speaker. The grammar is the same as that shown on pp. 28 and 29, the only important exception being that the genitive singular of pronouns ends in *-khar* instead of *-kar*. Thus *ōkhar*, instead of *ōkar*, of him. Similarly *tēkhar*, of that, and *ēkhar*, of this. In the original, as sent by the Paṇḍit, no distinction is made between short *e* and long *ē*, or between short *o* and long *ō*. In preparing the specimen for the press, I have thought it best not to attempt to mark these distinctions on my own authority, and hence I have left every *e* and *o* without any diacritical mark. I must add that the interlinear translation is mine, and that I alone am responsible for it.

[No. 44.]

INDO-ARYAN FAMILY.

MEDIATE GROUP.

CHHATTISGARHĪ OR LARĪĀ.

(DISTRICT RAIPUR.)

एक मनखे-के दू बेटा रहिन । वोखर-सब-ले छोटे-हर अपन ददा-ला कहिस के हमार बाँटा-ला बाँट दे । तौ वो-हर जौन पूँजी-पसरा रहिस ते-ला बाँट दिहिस । थोरके दिन-के गये-ले वो छोकरा-हर सब माल-मता अज पैसा-कौड़ी-ला ले-के दूसर देस-माँ निकर गय अज अंट-पंट खरचा खर-के अपन सब जयजात-ला फूँक डारिस । वही बहर ठौँका दुकाल परिस अज छोकर बपुरा भूँखन मरे लागिस । तब वो-हर वही गाँव-के एक भान बसुंधरा घर जा-के रहे लागिस । वो-हर वो-ला रोज सुँवरा चराये-बर खेत-में पठोवय । वो बपुरा-के पेट नहिँ भरत रहिस एखर खातिर वोखर मन ललचाइस के महुँ-हर सुँवरा पीला खाये-के भूँसा-ला खातेव । वोहुँ वो-ला नहिँ मिलिस । तब वो-ला ये बात-के सुध आइस अज अपन मन-में कहे लागिस के मोर ददा घर-के कामिया-सौँजिया-ला फेँकत-ले खाये-बर मिलथे, अज मैँ इहाँ भूँखन मरत हौँ । एखर-ले भलुक अपन ददा-मेरी चल देहौँ अज वोखर मेर कहिहौँ के तोर-ले बेगर हो-के चल दियेव, तेखर फल-ला पायेव । मैँ तोर लइका कहाये-के जोग नहिँ आव । मो-ला तैँ कुछू समझ । अइसने गुन के वो-हर अपन ददा-मेर चलि स । वो-हर थोरके दुरिहा गये रहिस-होहै के वोखर अज वोखर ददा-के भेंट भइ गय । वोखर ददा-हर दुरिहा-ले अपन बेटा-ला आवत देखिस । तहाँ-ले वोखर जी-में खुसी अमाय गय अज वो-हर वो-ला पोटार-के चुमा लिहे लागिस । तब छोकरा बपुरा कहिस के मैँ-हर तोर मेर-ले बेगर हो-के चल दिहेव तेखर-बर फल-ला भगवान-हर दे दिहिस । मैँ तोर लइका कहाये के जोग नहिँ आव । मो-ला तैँ कुछू समझ । तब वोखर ददा-हर अपन सौँजिया-ला कहिस के बने-असन धोती निकार-के बाबू-ला पहिरा दे अज अँगठी-में मुँदरी अज पाँव-में पनही पहिरा दे । अब खाबो पीबो मजा करबो, का-बर के मोर लइका मरे बरोबर हो गये रहिस है, तेखर आज नवा जनम भइस ; गँवाय गये रहिस, ते-ला पायेव । अज वो-मन सबे-कहुँ खुसी मनाये लागिन ॥

वोखर बड़े लड़का खेत-में रहिस । ते-हर जब घर-मेर आइस तो
 ठोलकी बाजत मुनिस । तब वो-हर एक भन कँमिया-ला बलाय-के पूछिस
 के हमार इहाँ काये होत है ? तब वो-हर बताइस कि अभी तोर भाई
 आइस है । तेखरे-बर तोर ददा-हर नेवता करे है का-बर के वो-हर बने
 बने आय गय । ए-ला मुन-के वो-हर रिसाय गय अज घर-में नहिँ गइस ।
 तब वोखर ददा-हर बाहिर आ-के वो-ला मनाये लागिस । तब वो-हर अपन
 बाप-ला कहिस के देख, मैं अनेक दिन-ले तोर संग-ला नहिँ छोड़ेंव अज
 तोर कहे-ला नहिँ टारेंव । तभी-ले तै-हर मो-ला एक-ठन केरी पीला घलाय
 नहिँ दिये जे-माँ मै-हर अपन संगी जँवरिहा संग मजा करतेंव । जौन-हर
 माल-बस्त-ला पतुरिया-मनन-ला खवाय-के बैठे है तौने-ला तै-हर आये देख-के
 ओखर-खातिर नेवता-हँकारी करत हस । ए-ला मुन-के वोखर ददा-हर
 कहिस के तै-हर सब दिन-ले मोर संगे-में हस, मोर-मेर जौन-कुछू हवे तौन
 सब तोरे आय । तो-ला तो उछाह करे चाही अज खुसी मनाय चाही
 काहे-बर के ए तोर भाई मरे बरोबर हो गये रहिस-है, तेखर आज नवा
 जनम भइस ; गँवाय गये रहिस, ते-ला पायेंव ॥

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

Ek-man^akhe-ke dū beṭā rahin. Okhar-sab-le chhoṭe-har apan-dadā-lā
One-man-of two son were. Them-from the-younger his-own-father-to
 kahis ke, 'hamār-bāṭā-lā bāṭ-de.' Tau o-har jaun pūji-pas^arā rahis,
said that, 'my-share dividing-give.' Then he what property was,
 te-lā bāṭ-dihis. Thor^ake-din-ke gaye-le o chhok^arā-har
that he-dividing-gave. A-few-days-of going-on that boy
 sab-māl-matā-aū-paisā-kaurī-lā le-ke dūsar-dēs-mā nikar-gay, aū
all-property-and-pice-cowries taken-having another-land-in forth-went, and
 aṇṭ-paṇṭ khar^achā kar-kē apan-sab-jay^ajāt-lā phūk-dāris. Wahī
prodigal expenditure made-having his-own-all-property burnt-up. That
 bachhar ṭhaūkā dukāl paris, aū chhokar bapurā bhūkhan
year severe famine fell, and the-boy poor-fellow of-hunger
 mare-lāgis. Tab o-har wahī-gāw-ke ek jhan basūdh^arā-ghar
to-die-began. Then he that-village-of a person inhabitant's-house
 jā-ke rahe-lāgis. O-har o-lā roj sūw^arā charāye-bar khēt-mē
gone-having to-remain-began. He him daily swine feeding-for field-in
 pathoway. O-bapurā-ke peṭ nahī bharat-rahis, ekhar-khātir okhar
sent. That-poor-fellow-of belly not he-was-filling, this-for his.

man lal^achāis ke 'mahū^ñ-har sūw^arā-pilā khāye-ke bhūsā-lā khātēw.'
mind longed that 'I-too swine-young-ones eating-of chaff I-may-eat.'
 O-hū o-lā nahī milis. Tab o-lā ye-bāt-ke sudh āis,
That-even him-to not was-got. Then him-to this-thing-of memory came,
 aū apan-man-mē kahe-lāgis ke, 'mor-dadā-ghar-ke
and his-own-mind-in to-say-he-began that, 'my-father's-house-of
 kāmīyā-saūjīyā-lā phēkat-le khāye-bar mil^athe, aū maī ihā
labourers-servants-to throwing-away-by eating-for is-being-got, and I here
 bhūkhan marat-haū. Ekhar-le bhaluk apan-dadā-merī chal-dehaū,
of-hunger dying-am. This-than rather my-own-father-near I-will-set-out,
 aū okhar-mer kahīhaū ke, "tor-le begar hō-ke chal-dihēw,
and him-near I-will-say that, "thee-from apart become-having I-set-out,
 tekhar phal-lā pāyēw. Maī tor laikā kahāye-ke jog nahī
of-that the-fruit I-received. I thy son of-being-called worthy not
 āw. Mc-lā taī kuchhū samajh." Aīsane gun-ke o-har
am. Me thou anything consider." Thus considered-having he
 apan-dadā-mer chalis. O-har thor^ake-durihā gaye-rahis-hohai ke
his-own-father-near went. He a-short-distance gone-had that
 okhar aū okhar-dadā-ke bhēt bhaī-gay. Okhar-dadā-har durihā-le
of-him and his-father-of meeting took-place. His-father distance-from
 apan-bēṭā-la āwat dekhis. Tahā^ñ-le okhar-ji-mē khūsī amāy-gay
his-own-son coming saw. Thereupon his-soul-in happiness filled-became
 aū o-har o-lā potār-ke chumā lihē-lāgis. Tab chhok^arā
and he him-to embraced-having a-kiss he-took. Then the-boy
 bapurā kahis ke, 'maī-har tor-mer-le begar hō-ke
the-poor-fellow said that, 'I thee-near-from apart become-having
 chal-dihēw, tekhar-bar phal-lā Bhagawān-har de-dihis. Maī tor laikā
departed, that-for the-fruit God gave. I thy son
 kahāye-ke jog nahī āw. Mo-lā taī kuchhū samajh.
of-being-called worthy not am. Me thou anything consider.'
 Tab okhar-dadā-har apan-saūjīyā-lā kahis ke, 'bane-asan dhōtī
Then his-father his-own-servant-to said that, 'good-very loin-cloth
 nikar-ke bābū-lā pahirā-de, aū āg^aṭhi-mē mūd^arī aū pāw-mē
produced-having my-son-to clothe, and finger-on ring and feet-on
 pan^ahī pahirā-de. Ab khābo pibo majā kar^abo; kā-bar
shoes put-on. Now we-will-eat we-will-drink rejoicing we-will-do; because
 ke mor laikā mare-barobar ho-gaye-rahis-hai, tekhar āj nawā janam
that my son dead-equal-to had-become, his today new birth
 bhaīs; gāwāy-gaye-rahis, te-lā payēw. Aū o-man sabe-kahū khusi
became; he-had-been-lost, him I-got.' And they every-one rejoicing
 manāye-lāgin.
to-celebrate-began.

Okhar bare laikā khet-mē rahis. Te-har jab ghar-mer āis,
His big son the-field-in was. He when house-near came,
 tau dhol^{ki} bājat sunis. Tab o-har ek-jhan-kāmiyā-lā balāy-ke
then drum playing heard. Then he one-person-servant called-having
 pūchhis ke, 'hamār-ihā kāye hot-hai?' Tab o-har batāis ki,
asked that, 'our-in-house what happening-is?' Then he explained that,
 'abhī tor bhāi āis-hai. Tekhare-bar tor-dadā-har new^{tā} kare-hai,
'just-now thy brother come-is. That-for thy-father feast made-has,
 kā-bar ke o-har bane-bane āy-gay.' E-lā sun-ke o-har
because that he well-in-all-respects arrived.' This heard-having he
 risāy-gay, āū ghar-mē nahī gais. Tab okhar dadā-har
became-angry, and house-in not went. Then his father
 bāhir ā-ke o-lā manāye-lāgis. Tab o-har apan-bāp-lā
outside come-having him to-appease-began. Then he his-own-father-to
 kahis ke, 'dekh, māi anek-din-le tor-saṅg-lā nahī chhoṛēw,
said that, 'behold, I many-days-from thy-company not I-abandoned,
 āū tor-kahe-lā nahī ṭārēw. Tabho-le taī-har mo-lā
and thy-spoken-word not transgressed. Nevertheless thou me-to
 ek-ṭhan chherī-pilā ghalāy nahī diye, je-mā māi-har
a-single she-goat-young-one even not thou-gavest, which-in I
 apan-saṅgī-jāwarīhā-saṅg majā kar^{tēw}. Jaun-har
my-own-companions-friends-with rejoicing I-might-have-made. (He-) who
 māl-bast-lā putariyā-manan-lā khawāy-ke baiṭhe-hai, taune-lā taī-har
the-property harlots-to given-to-eat-having sat-has, him thou
 āye dekh-ke okhar-khātir new^{tā}-hākārī karat-has.' E-lā sun-ke
come seen-having him-for feast-calling making-art.' This heard-having
 okhar-dadā-har kahis ke, 'taī-har sab-din-le mor-saṅge-mē has; mor-mer
his-father said that, 'thou all-days me-with art; me-near
 jaun-kuchhū hawai taun-sab tore āy. To-lā to uchhāh
whatever is that-all thine is. Thee-to verily rejoicing
 karē-chāhī, āū khusī manāy-chāhī, kāhe-bar ke e
to-make-is-proper, and happiness to-celebrate-is-proper, because that this
 tor bhāi mare-barobar ho-gaye-rahis-hai, tekhar āj nawā janam
thy brother dead-equal-to had-become, his today new birth
 bhaīs; gāwāy-gaye-rahis, te-lā pāyēu.
became; he-had-been-lost, him I-got.'

Page 195.—I am also indebted to Paṇḍit Lōchan Prasād Kāvya-vinōd for the following revised version of the second specimen of the Chhattīsgarhī of Bilaspur which was prepared by Mr. Pyarelal Gupta, a gentleman who is a resident in that district, and who is a well-known author. As in the preceding specimens, in the transliteration, I do not mark the difference between long and short *e* and *o*.

[No. 46.]

INDO-ARYAN FAMILY.

MEDIATE GROUP.

EASTERN HINDI.

CHHATTISGARHĪ OR LARĪĀ.

(DISTRICT BILASPUR.)

एक-ठन गाँव-माँ केवट अउर केवटिन रहिन । ते-कर एक-ठन लड्का रहिस । केवट-हर महाजन-के रुपिया लागत-रहिस । तौ एक दिन साव-हर रुपिया माँगे-बर आइस । तौ सियान-मन घर-माँ न रह्य । लड्का घर राखत बैठे-रह्य । साव-हर पूँछिस कस-रे बाबू तोर दार्द-ददा-मन कहाँ गये-हैं । टूरा-हर कहिस की मोर दार्द गये-हैं एक-के दू करे-बर । औ ददा-हर काँटा-माँ काँटा रूँधे-बर गये-हवैं । तब साव-हर कथय के कैसे गोठियात-हस रे टूरा । तब टूरा कहिस मैं तो ठीका गोठियाथौँ साव । ओतक-माँ टूरा-के औ साव-के लराई भइ-गय । साव-हर कहिस के तैं जीन बात-ला गोठियाये-हस तीन बात-ला सिरतोन कर दे । नइ करबे तो तो-ला साहेब-के कचहरी-माँ ले-जाहौँ । तब तो-ला सजा हो-जाही । टूरा-हर कहिस मोर दार्द-ददा-मन जतका तोर रुपिया लागत-हैं ते-ला तैं छाँड़-देबे तब मैं ये-कर भेद-ला बताहौँ । तौ साव-हर कहिस के भेद-ला नइ बतावे तौ तो-ला कैद करवा-देहौँ । तब टूरा-हर कहिस हौँ महाराज चल । साहेब-लँग चली । केवट-के टूरा औ साव दूनो भन साहेब-लँग गइन । साहेब-लँग साव-हर फिरयाद करिस के महाराज मैं आज बिहनिया केवट-के घर गयौँ तब केवट औ केवटिन घर-माँ नइ रहिन । वो-कर लड्का रहिस । तब मैं वो-ला पूँछेव की कस-रे बाबू तोर दार्द-ददा-मन कहाँ गये-हैं । तब ये टूरा-हर कहिस के मोर दार्द गये-हैं एक-के दुई करे-बर औ ददा गये-हैं काँटा-माँ काँटा रूँधे-बर । तब ये-कर औ मोर लराई भइ-गय । ये-कर मोर हार-जीत लगे-है । ये-कर नियाव-ला कर-दे । साहेब-हर टूरा-ले पूँछिस की कस-रे टूरा ये-कर भेद-ला बतैबे । टूरा कहिस हौँ महाराज साव-हर सबो रुपिया-ला छाँड़ देही ना । तब साहेब-हर साव-ला पूँछिस की ये-कर भेद-ला टूरा-हर बताय-देही तो तैं सबो रुपिया-ला छाँड़ देबे-ना । साव कहिस हौँ महाराज । औ नइ बताही तौ सजा हो-जाही-न महाराज ।

साहेब कहिस अच्छा तुम-मन चुपे-चाप ठाढ़े रहा । साहेब टूरा-ला पूँछिस कस-रे टूरा तैं कैसे कैसे साव-ला गोठियाये । टूरा कहिस मैं ऐसन गोठियायौ के साव पूँछिस के कस-रे बाबू तोर दार्द-ददा-मन कहाँ गये-हैं । तब मैं कच्चौ के मोर दार्द गये-हैं एक के दुई करे-बर औ ददा गये-हैं काँटा-माँ काँटा रूँधे-बर । सुना महाराज मोर दार्द गये-हैं चना दरे-बर । तब एक ठन-के दू दार होयै । ये-कर भेद दूया अय महाराज । दूसर बात ऐसन अय के मोर ददा-हर भाटा-बारी-माँ काँटा रूँधे-बर गये-रहिस । तब महाराज भाटा-माँ काँटा होयै । तब मैं कच्चौ काँटा-माँ काँटा रूँधे गये-हैं । मोर मेर दूया साव-हर कजिया करे लागिंस । साव-हर वोतेक-माँ बड़बड़ाये लागिंस । साहेब कहिस चुपे रव साव । तैं हार-गये । दूया टूरा-हर जीत-गइस । टूरा-हर सिरतोन बात-ला बताइस-है । रुपिया-ला छाँड़ दे ॥

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

Ek-ṭhan gāw-mā kewat aūr kewṭin rahin. Te-kar ek-ṭhan laikā.
One village-in a-fisherman and a-fisherwoman were. Them-of one son
 rahis. Kewat-har mahājan-ke rupiyā lāgat-rahis. Tau ek din sāv-har
was. The-fisherman banker-of money owed. Then one day the-banker
 rupiyā māge-bar āis. Tau siyān-man ghar-mā na rahāy. Laikā ghar
money to-demand came. Then the-elders house-in not were. The-boy house
 rākhāt baithe-rahay. Sāv-har pūchhis, 'kas-re, bābū, tor dāi-dadā-man
guarding seated-was. The-banker asked, 'well, boy, thy mother-father-(plur.)
 kahā gaye-hai?' Tūrā-har kahis ke, 'mor dāi gaye-hai ek-ke dū kare-bar,
where gone-are?' The-boy said that, 'my mother gone-is one-of two making-for,
 au dadā-har kāṭā-mā kāṭā rūdhe-bar gaye-hawāi.' Tab sāv-har kathay
and father thorns-in thorns fencing-for gone-is.' Then the-banker said
 ke, 'kaise goṭhiyāt-has, re tūrā?' Tab tūrā kahis, 'māi to
that, 'how are-you-talking, O boy?' Then the-boy said, 'I surely
 ṭhaukā goṭhiyāthaū, Sāv.' Otek-mā tūrā-ke au sāv-ke larāi
true am-saying, Sir.' Thereupon the-boy-of and the-banker-of quarrel
 bhāi-gay. Sāv-har kahis ke, 'taī jaun bāt-lā goṭhiyāye-has taun
became. The-banker said that, 'thou what words said-hast those
 bāt-lā sir-ton-kar-de. Nāi-kar-be to to-lā sāheb-ke
words true-make. If-thou-wilt-not-do-(so) then thee the-Sāhib-of
 kachah'ri-mā le-jāhaū. Tab to-lā saajā-ho-jāhi.
court-into I-shall-carry-away. Then thee-to punishment-will-be.'

Tūrā-har kahis, 'mor dāi-dadā-man jat^{kā} tor rupiyā lāgat-haī
The-boy said, 'my mother-father how-much thy rupees owe
 te-lā taī chhār-debe, tab maī ye-kar bhed-lā batāhaū.
that thou wilt-give-up, then I this-of meaning will-tell.
 Tau sāv-har kahis ke, 'bhed-lā naī batābe, tau
Thereupon the-banker said that, 'the-meaning not thou-will-tell, then
 to-lā kaid-kar^{wā}-dehaū. Tab tūrā-har kahis, 'hau, Mah^{rāj}, chal.
thee I-shall-get-imprisoned.' Then the-boy said, 'yes, Sir, come.
 Sāheb lāg chali. Kewaṭ-ke tūrā au sāv dūno
The-Sāhib near let-us-go.' The-fisherman's son and the-banker both
 jhan sāheb lāg gaīn. Sāheb lāg sāv-har phir^{yād} karis
persons the-Sāhib near went. The-Sāhib near the-banker complaint made
 ke, 'Mah^{rāj}, maī āj bihaniyā kewaṭ-ke ghar
that, 'Sir, I to-day in-the-morning the-fisherman-of house-to
 gayaū. Tab kewaṭ au kew^{tin} ghar-mā naī rahin.
went. Then the-fisherman and the-fisherwoman the-house-in not were.
 Wo-kar laikā rahis. Tab maī wo-lā pūchhēw ke, "kas-re
His son was. Then I him asked that, "well
 bābū, tor dāi-dadā-man kahā gaye haī?" Tab ye
boy, thy parents where gone are?" Then this
 tūrā-har kahis ke, "mor dāi gaye-hai ek-ke duī
boy said that, "my mother gone-is one-of two
 kare-bar, au dadā gaye hai kātā-mā kātā rūdhe-bar." Tab
making-for, and father gone is thorns-in thorns fencing-for." Then
 ye-kar au mor larāi bhai-gay. Ye-kar mor hār jīt
this-one's and my quarrel became. This-one's my defeat victory
 lage-hai. Ye-kar niyāw-lā kar-de. Sāheb-har tūrā-le pūchhis ke,
is-staked. This-of decision do.' The-Sāhib the-boy asked that,
 'kas-re tūrā, ye-kar bhed-lā bataibe?' Tūrā kahis, 'hau,
'well boy, this-of the-meaning will-you-tell?' The-boy said, 'yes,
 Mah^{rāj}, sāv-har sabo rupiyā-lā chhār-dehī-nā?' Tab sāheb-har
Sir, the-banker all money will-give-up-(or-)not?' Thereupon the-Sāhib
 sāv-lā pūchhis ke, 'ye-kar bhed-lā tūrā-har batāy-dehī, to taī
the-banker asked that, 'this-of meaning the-boy will-tell, then thou
 sabo rupiyā-lā chhār-debe-nā?' Sāv kahis, 'hau, Mah^{rāj}. Au
all the-rupees wilt-give-up-or-not?' The-banker said, 'yes, Sir. And
 naī-batāhī tau saja-ho-jāhī-na, Mah^{rāj}? Sāheb kahis,
he-will-not-tell then will-he-be-punished-(or-)not, Sir?' The-officer said,
 'achchhā, tum-man chupe-chāp thārhe rahā.' Sāheb tūrā-lā
'all-right, you silently standing remain.' The-Sāhib the-boy-to
 pūchhis, 'kas-re, tūrā, taī kaise kaise sāv-lā goṭhiyāyē?' Tūrā
asked, 'well, boy, then how how the-banker spoke?' The-boy

kahis, 'maĩ aisan goṭhiyāyāũ ke, sāw pūchhis ke, "kas-re,
 said, 'I in-this-way spoke that, the-banker asked that, "well,
 bābū, tor dāi-dadā-man kahā gaye-hai?" Tab maĩ kahyaũ ke, "mor
 boy, thy parents where gone-are?" Then I said that, "my
 dāi gaye-hai ek-ke dui kare-bar, au dadā gaye-hai kātā-mā
 mother gone-is one-of two making-for, and the-father gone-is thorns-in
 kātā rūdhe-bar." Sunā, Mah'rāj, mor dāi gaye-hai chanā dare-bar.
 thorns fencing-for." Hear, Sir, my mother gone-is pease to-split.
 Tab ek-ṭhan-ke dū dār hothai. Ye-kar bhed iyā ay,
 Then one(-pea)-of two split-peas becomes. This-thing-of meaning this is,
 Mah'rāj. Dūsar bāt aisan ay ke mor dadā-har bhātā-bārī-mā
 Sir. The-other thing so is that my father brinjal-garden-in
 kātā rūdhe-bar gaye-rahis. Tab, Mah'rāj, bhātā-mā kātā hothai.
 thorns fencing-for gone-was. Then, Sir, brinjals-in thorns are.
 Tab maĩ kahyaũ, "kātā-mā kātā rūdhe gaye-hai." Mor mer iyā
 Then I said, "thorns-in thorns to-fence gone-is." Of-me with this
 sāw-har kajiyā kare lāgis. Sāw-har wotek-mā baṛ'baṛāye lāgis.
 banker a-fight to-make began. The-banker thereupon to-murmur began.
 Sāheb kahis, 'chupe raw, Sāw. Taĩ hār-gaye. Iyā ṭūrā-har
 The-Sāhib said, 'silent remain, O-banker. Thou art-defeated. This boy
 jit-gais. Ṭūrā-har sir-ton bāt-lā batais-hai. Rupiyā-lā chhāṛ-de.'
 has-won. The-boy true things has-spoken. Rupees give-up.'

VOLUME VII.

Page 194.—I am indebted to Mr. R. E. Enthoven, C.I.E., for the following list of words in the Kuḍālī dialect, as spoken by Marāṭhās, Bhaṇḍārīs, etc. of the Malvan and Vengurla Talukas of the Ratnagiri District :—

Kuḍālī word.		Equivalent in Marāṭhī.		Meaning.
आडसार	āḍ'sār	शहळें	śahāḷē	A tender coco-nut.
आफडणें	āphad'ṇā	शिवणें	śiv'ṇē	To touch.
आयट	āyat	साँचा	sāchā	A mould.
आयदान	āy'dān	भाँडे	bhāḍē	A utensil.
इरस	iras	चाकाचा आस	chākā-chā ās	The axle of a wheel.
उडकी	uḍ'kī	उडी	uḍī	A jump.
उपणें	up'ṇā	पेरणें	pēr'ṇē	To sow.
उबलां	ub'lā	दरवाजाची चौकट	dar'wājā-chī chaukaṭ.	The frame of a door.
उमळणें	umal'ṇā	धुणें	dhunē	To wash.
कामेरोण	kāmērīṇ	मोलकरीण	mōl-karīṇ	A maid-servant.
कुरडो	kur'ḍō	आंधळा	ādh'lā	Blind.
खोराण	khōrāṇ	कोन्हाडा	kōnhāḍā	A niche.
खाला	khālō	पान	pān	A leaf.
गजाल	gajāl	गोष्ट	gōshṭa	A story, tale.
गराद	garād	मोठी खिडकी	mōṭhī khib'kī	A large window.
गिचकी	gich'kī	घेरी	ghērī	A swoon.
गीम	gīm	उन्हाळा	unhālā	Summer.
गंडो	gunḍō	दगड	dagaḍ	A stone.
जंगो	jangī	लहान खिडकी	lahān khib'kī	A small window.
झिलगो	jhil'gō	मुलगा	mul'gā	A boy.
तरूप	talap	खडकाळ जमीन	khaḍ'kāl jamīn	Rocky soil.
नडणी	naḍ'ṇī	बेणणें	bēṇ'ṇē	Weeding.
नाल	nāl	नारळ	nāraḷ	A coco-nut.
पिल्लव	pilāv	पोलाद	pōlād	Steel.

Kuṣāṇī word.	Equivalent in Marāṭhī.	Meaning.
पुडियाँ <i>puḍiyā</i>	धोतर <i>dhōtar</i>	A costly waistcoat worn on ceremonial occasions.
पेचण्णाँ <i>pēch^anā</i>	चिरणें <i>chir^anē</i>	To split.
पोली <i>pōlō</i>	गाल <i>gāl</i>	The cheek.
फाल्याँ <i>phālyā</i>	उद्याँ <i>udyā</i>	Tomorrow.
बकरा <i>bak^arā</i>	थोडेँ <i>thōḍē</i>	A little.
मानाय <i>mānāy</i>	गडी <i>gaḍī</i>	A labourer.
राजू <i>rājū</i>	दोर <i>dōr</i>	A rope.
वळय <i>valaya</i>	माजघर <i>māj-ghar</i>	The central compartment of a house.
सकळ <i>sakaḷ</i>	लवकर <i>lavakar</i>	Soon.
सोमताँ <i>sōm^atā</i>	ताबडतोब <i>tābaḍ-tōb</i>	Immediately.
हडगी <i>haḍ^agī</i>	टोपली <i>tōp^alī</i>	A basket.
हाडणाँ <i>haḍ^anā</i>	आणणें <i>āṇaṇē</i>	To bring.
हॉवडणाँ <i>hā^avāḍ^anā</i>	हॉकणें <i>hā^ak^anē</i>	To drive.
होंडको <i>hōḍ^akō</i>	खळगा <i>khaḷ^agā</i>	A ditch.
होरणाँ <i>hōr^anā</i>	नेणें <i>nēṇē</i>	To carry.

VOLUME VIII—PART II.

As these Addenda were passing through the press, I received valuable information regarding the Dardic languages, and other forms of speech current on the North-West Frontier, from Dr. Morgenstierne, collected by him during a residence in Kabul, where he had unique opportunities for meeting speakers of many languages of Eastern Afghanistan. With great liberality he has placed at my disposal the following abstract of the results of his researches, so far as they regard the tongues of Western Dardistan. His additional notes regarding Eranian languages will be found in the Addenda to Volume X (p. 385). These abstracts have been given by him with the kind permission of the Norwegian Institute for Comparative Research in Human Culture (Norsk Institutt for Sammenlignende Kulturforskning). His materials will, in due course, be published in full by that Society. The first set of notes furnished by him deals with the Kāfir languages, and is as follows. I am responsible for the spelling of the words, which (in regard to vowels) I have here and there altered from Dr. Morgenstierne's in order to agree with the rougher system followed in the Survey. The letter *ū* indicates an open *ū*, between *u* and *o*.

BASHGALĪ (KATĪ). [Survey, Vol. VIII, Pt. ii, pp. 32ff.]

Bashgalī is spoken not only in the Bashgal valley, but also in the valleys of Ktīvī, Kulūm, and Ramgel in Western Kāfiristān. As the name 'Bashgal' denotes only the lower part of the valley round Kāmdēsh, it would be better to call the language Katī, as the whole tribe speaking it is called. The two sections of the Katī-speaking people are now separated by the Prasūs (Presuns), but according to their traditions, they originally all came from Ktīvī (Ktī). The absence of important dialectic differences seems to indicate that the separation has not lasted for a very long time.

In some cases the Western Katī has preserved older forms. *E.g.*, corresponding to Bashgalī (Kāmdēsh) *sh̄to*, four, we find *ch̄tvā*.

It must be observed that the ordinary Indian *r* is not met with in Katī. The sound usually written thus is a post-alveolar, spirantic *r*, without any flap, which I write *r̄*. It never occurs after dentals, but regularly after *k, g, p, b*. *E.g.*, *tr̄ā*, three; *dr̄ū*, a hair; thin; but *grām*, village; *br̄ā*, brother.

The first Sentences of the Parable in the Dialect of Ramgel.

Ew	manchi	dyu	m ^a r ^a	vāisyā-m ^a m.	St ^a	dyā	p ^a -mīj ^a
One	man	two	children	had-formerly.	The	two	from-among
pr ^a -m ^a r̄	pāets	tāt ^a st ^a	jī-kun ^a ,	'ēi tā,	kaste	tuste	māl
young	boy	father-to	saying-does,	'O father,	whatever	thy	goods
asht-bā,	emā	beti	kiti	ave.'	St ^a	māl	beti
are-may-be,	to-us	division	having-made	give.'	He	goods	dividing
st ^a	ptāsyā-m ^a m.	Chvāk	wās	pushtyē	pr ^a -meṛ	pāets	mālā
to-them	he-gave-then.	Some	time	afterwards	younger	son	goods
wasinēiti,	pa	udeshe	g ^a lā	guāsyā-m ^a m.			
having-collected,	to	foreign	countries	he-went-then.			

WAI-ALĀ (WĀIGALĪ). [Survey, pp. 45ff.]

There are two main dialects of Wāigali. To the one group belong the dialect described in the Survey, the language of the vocabularies given by Burnes and Lumsden, and also the dialect of Wr'enchehal (locally pronounced Zhōnjigal) which I had occasion to study. To the other group belong the form of speech described in Vigne's vocabulary, and the dialect of Kēgal in the lower part of the Wāigal valley.

As will be seen from the vocabularies, the chief differences consist in the Kēgal (marked K. in the specimen below) dialect having *ew* for 'one,' while the Zhōnjigal (marked Zh. below) dialect has *ēk*, and, in the personal pronouns, e.g., K. *an*, I, Zh. *yē*. Wāigali possesses both the Indian *r* and the alveolar *r* of Katī.

The first Sentences of the Parable in the Dialects of Wāigalī.

K.	Ew	manashā	bā	dū	pūtr	orē.	Dūyā	kēnī	kōṣṭtō	pūtras
Zh.	Ēk	manash*	bā	dū	pūtr	orī.			Kōṣṭtō	putr's*
	One	man	of	two	sons	were.	The-two among the-younger son			
K.	tātisā-ken	mātrē,	'tātē,	tū	bā	māla	māti,	ū		
Zh.	tatōs	matrai,	'ō-tā,	imā	maṭini	māla		ī		
	father-his-to said,		'father,	thee	of	goods	having-divided, my			
			'O-father,	my	share	of-goods	to-me			
K.	mātānē	ū	grō.'	Ali	tā	kēnē	tāb*			
Zh.	maṭi		ao.'	Tatōs		māl	ū	brāwā		
	share	to-me	give.'	Then	them	amongst	his			
	having-divided		give.'	The-father	the-goods	these	brothers-to			
K.	māl	mātei.		Kiti	wās	patārīi	kōṣṭtō	pūtras		
Zh.		maṭi	pratōt.	Ēk-kiti	wās	pat'k'r'-ke	kōṣṭtō	putr's*		
	goods	he-divided.		Some	days	afterwards	the-younger	son		
		having-divided	he-gave.							
K.	saparak	tāb*	māl	eṣhāi	kr'ōt,	ew	sudū	gōla	ken	disāi.
Zh.		tasho-bā	māl	eṣhēi	kr'ō,	ēk	sudū	gāl*	k*	samatī.
	all	his	property	collected	made,	one	far	country	to	he-went.

WASĪ-VERI OR VERON (PRASŪ). [Survey, pp. 59ff.]

Of Prasū (i.e., Veron) I had only the opportunity to collect a short vocabulary, which agrees fairly with that given in the Linguistic Survey of India. Most of the words agree with Katī, although transformed in their appearance through strange phonetical changes.

ASHKUND (ASHKŪ). [Survey, p. 68.]

Ashkū is spoken in the mountains between the Alingār and the Pech valleys, and is divided into two dialects. The western, spoken in Majegal and Masevi towards Mangu, is characterized by the transition of *kr*, *gr*, *pr*, and *br* to *kl*, *gl*, *pl*, and *bl*, respectively, (but *tr*, *dr*, remain unchanged, just as in Katī the dentals have dentalized the *r*). E.g., *klōm*, roof; *glam*, village; *plā*, baby; *blā*, brother; against eastern Ashkū

krum; ...; *prā* and *bra*. The eastern dialect is spoken towards the Pech valley, in Titin, Tserū, and possibly in Vāmā. In Kurdār Pashai is spoken.

The language is called *Ashkū* (eastern dialect) or *Ashkūrū* (western dialect), but the name is said to have no meaning like 'Bare Mountains.'

It will be seen that *Ashkū* is closely related to *Wāigali*, but in some cases sides with *Katī*. The *Kāfir* language described by Trumpp is identical with the *Majegal* dialect, and also the few sentences given by Tanner (P. R. G. S., III, pp. 291ff.) are in *Ashkū*.

The First Sentences of the Parable in Ashkū.

A	mats	dō	zaga	vāstege.	Kī	lakurā	mr'āk	días	belēi,
One	man	two	sons	had.	This	younger	boy	father-his-to	said,
'O	dia,	tōa	māl	m'tī	yū	gūi.'	Dāi	māl	
'O	father,	your	property	having-divided	to-me	give.'	The-father	property	
m'tī	zagāres	m'tī	pr'ōte.	Tsit	wās				
having-divided	between-his-sons	having-divided	gave.	Some	days (later)				
lakureste	zagās	māl	āshēitsi	aūngei,	zada	gula	ta	ge.	
the-younger	son-his	property	having-collected	took,	other	country	to	went.	

Dr. Morgenstierne has also supplied the following lists of words in the above languages. As before, I am responsible for the spelling of the words, which (in regard to vowels) I have here and there altered from Dr. Morgenstierne's in order to agree with the rougher system followed in the Survey.

SPECIMENS IN THE

English.	KATĪ (i.e. BASHGALĪ OF SURVEY).		WĀIGALĪ.	
	(Kulm).	(Bargamatal).	(Kēgal).	(Zhōnjigal).
1. One	ew	ew	ēk
2. Two	dū	du	dū
3. Three	trā	trē	trē
4. Four	chtvā	sh ^t vā	chatā	chatā
5. Five	pūch	puch	pūch	pōch
6. Six	shū	shū	shū
7. Seven	sūt	sōt	sōt
8. Eight	wūsh ^t	ūsh ^t	ōsh ^t	ōsh ^t
9. Nine	nū	nū	nū	nū
10. Ten	dutā	dōsh	dōsh
11. Twenty	v ^a ts ^a	vishī	vishī
12. Fifty	dyutao dutā	dyūts ^a dutā	du vishī e dōshi	dūsh e dōsh
13. Hundred	puch ^a v ^a ts ^a	puch v ^a ts ^a	pūch vishī	pūch vishī
14. I	ūza, wūts	ū	an ^a	yē
15. Of me	yē, yēme	ī, yē	ū	ī, ī
16. Mine	yēste	īst	omō	im ^a
17. We	emā	yimū	amī	yāmā
18. Of us	emā	yimū	amē	yama
19. Our	emāste	yimūst	amēb ^a	imā
20. Thou	tū	tū	tū	tū
21. Of thee	tū	tū	tū	tū
22. Thine	tuste	tūst	tūb ^a	tōbā
23. You	shā	shā	vī	vī
24. Of you	shā	shā	vā

KĀFIR LANGUAGE.

Prasū (i.e. Wasī-veri or Veron of Survey).	ASHKŪ (i.e. ASHKUND OF SURVEY).		English.
	(T'tin).	(Majgal).	
ipūn	ach	ach	1. One.
lū	dō	dū	2. Two.
chī	trā	tre	3. Threo.
chpū	tsatā	tsatā	4. Four.
wuchū	pōnch	ponṭa	5. Five.
wuṣhū	ṣhū	ṣhu	6. Six.
sātā	sōt	sōt	7. Seven.
aste	ōṣhṭ	ōṣhṭ	8. Eight.
nū	nō	no	9. Nine.
lez	dus	dus	10. Ten.
dzū	vishī	vishī	11. Twenty.
lejjebiz	dō vishī a dus	12. Fifty.
wuchegzū	13. Hundred.
.....	ai	ai	14. I.
.....	yū	yū, yūi mish	15. Of me.
.....	imā	ima, imōa	16. Mine.
.....	im ^a	im ^a	17. We.
.....	im ^a	18. Of us.
.....	imba	ima	19. Our.
.....	tū	tū	20. Thou.
.....	tō	tō	21. Of thee.
.....	tōa	tōa	22. Thine.
.....	vī	yā	23. You.
.....	yā	24. Of you.

English.	KATĪ (i.e. BASHGALĪ OF SURVEY).		WĀIGALĪ.	
	(Kulum).	(Bargamaṭal).	(Kēgal).	(Zhōnjigal).
25. Your . . .	shāste . . .	shāst . . .	vām ^a . . .	imbā . . .
26. He . . .	st ^a . . .	st ^a . . .	yī, sā . . .	se, sk ^a . . .
27. Of him . . .	st ^a , stā	yā, tā . . .	skā, tasho . . .
28. His . . .	steste	yomo, tāb ^a . . .	tasho bā, tōb ^a . . .
29. They . . .	st ^a	yā, tā . . .	te . . .
30. Of them . . .	st ^a
31. Their	tam ^a
32. Hand . . .	dusht . . .	dusht . . .	dōsht . . .	dōsht . . .
33. Foot . . .	kyur . . .	kyur . . .	kyūr . . .	papā . . .
34. Nose . . .	nasur' . . .	nasur' . . .	nās . . .	nasū . . .
35. Eye . . .	achī . . .	achē . . .	achē . . .	achē . . .
36. Mouth . . .	ashī . . .	ashī . . .	āsh . . .	āsh . . .
37. Tooth . . .	dut . . .	dut . . .	dōt . . .	dōt . . .
38. Ear . . .	kār . . .	kār . . .	kār . . .	kār . . .
39. Hair . . .	drū, zhyū . . .	d'rū, (a single hair) zhū.	kēts, chorók, (female hair) drū.	kēts, drō . . .
40. Head . . .	shāī . . .	shāī . . .	shai . . .	shēi . . .
41. Tongue . . .	dīts . . .	dīts . . .	jip . . .	jip . . .
42. Belly . . .	ktyāl . . .	kṭāl . . .	kuts, shā . . .	kūts, vaṭikāl . . .
43. Back . . .	p ^a ṭi . . .	pṭi . . .	uchē, yāpaṭi . . .	uchē, yāpaṭi . . .
44. Iron . . .	chimē . . .	chim ^a . . .	chimā . . .	chimār' . . .
45. Gold . . .	sun . . .	sun . . .	sūn . . .	sōn . . .
46. Silver . . .	rū . . .	arū . . .	urē . . .	urēi . . .
47. Father . . .	tā . . .	tā . . .	tātī . . .	tatā . . .
48. Mother . . .	nū . . .	nū . . .	yēi . . .	āye . . .
49. Brother . . .	br'ā . . .	br'ā . . .	brā . . .	brāhō . . .
50. Sister . . .	sus . . .	sus . . .	sōs . . .	sāsā . . .

Prastū (i.e. Wasf-veri or Veron of Survey).	ASHK Ū (i.e. ASHKUND OF SURVEY).		English.
	(Titin).	(Majegal).	
.....	yāmba	25. Your.
.....	kī	s ^a	26. He.
.....	kya	27. Of him.
.....	kyawa	28. His.
.....	kyāī	kyā ⁱ	29. They.
.....	kyāni	30. Of them.
.....	kyāwa	31. Their.
lust	dōsh, chapāl	dus, chapāl	32. Hand.
tēvāl	kūr	kur	33. Foot.
nes	kāsārā	k ^a s ^a r ^a	34. Nose.
izhī	atsī	atsō	35. Eye.
ish	āshī	āshī	36. Mouth.
letum	dont	dont	37. Tooth.
yūmu	karmutā	kam ^a tr ^a	38. Ear.
zhūi	zhū, drō	zhū, (a single hair) dro	39. Hair.
ji	shā	shā	40. Head.
wurdzakh	zhū	zhū	41. Tongue.
yūl	vāsh	banī	42. Belly.
.....	pištī	pištī	43. Back.
zhime	tsimā	tsim ^a	44. Iron.
sū	sōn	sun	45. Gold.
urū	arū	ur ^a	46. Silver.
yāi	dāi	dāi	47. Father.
nan	arau	arau	48. Mother.
bab	br'a	bla	49. Brother.
sūs	sus	sus	50. Sister.

English.	KATĪ (i.e. BASHGALI OF SURVEY).		WĀIGALĪ.	
	(Kulūm).	(Bargamaṭal).	(Kāgal).	(Zhōnjigal).
51. Man . . .	manchi . . .	manchi . . .	manuṣh . . .	manash . . .
52. Woman . . .	shtri . . .	shtri . . .	mēshi . . .	mōshi . . .
53. Wife . . .	shṭyār	ishtri . . .	ishṭ'r' . . .
54. Child . . .	m ^a r ^a . . .	medr ^a . . .	tanā . . .	tanamana . . .
55. Son . . .	pitr, pāets . . .	pitr, pāets . . .	pūtr . . .	zaghā, pūṭ'r . . .
56. Daughter . . .	jūk . . .	jū ^k . . .	jū . . .	jū . . .
57. Slave . . .	lav ^a n	loōn
59. Shepherd . . .	p ^a lē	pashipā . . .	pashpā . . .
60. God . . .	Imr'ā	Traskin . . .	Trasken . . .
61. Devil . . .	yūsh	yōsh . . .	yōsh . . .
62. Sun . . .	sū . . .	sū . . .	sō . . .	sōi . . .
63. Moon . . .	mās . . .	mās . . .	mās . . .	mās . . .
64. Star . . .	shṭā . . .	r'ushṭā . . .	tārā . . .	tāra . . .
65. Fire . . .	ānā . . .	ānā . . .	āi . . .	ā'r' . . .
66. Water . . .	aw ^a . . .	āw . . .	āw . . .	āw . . .
67. House . . .	amā . . .	amū . . .	amā . . .	amā . . .
68. Horse . . .	wush ^u p . . .	ūsh ^u p . . .	gōra . . .	gōra . . .
69. Cow . . .	gā . . .	gā . . .	gā . . .	gā . . .
70. Dog . . .	kr'uyi . . .	kr'ui . . .	tsū . . .	tsō . . .
71. Cat . . .	pshāsh . . .	pshāsh . . .	pishā
72. Cock . . .	n ^a k ^a kyur	nō-kūkū . . .	n ^a r'-kukū . . .
73. Duck . . .	ar' . . .	ar'	ārī . . .
74. Ass . . .	kur . . .	kur . . .	gadā . . .	gadā . . .
75. Camel . . .	shṭyūr . . .	shṭyur . . .	ūk . . .	ōk . . .
76. Bird . . .	mr' ^a nefs . . .	mr' ^a nefs . . .	nīgataś . . .	nīgetaś . . .
77. Go	ātum ¹ . . .	dilom ¹ . . .	gēam ¹ . . .

¹ First person singular of the present, and so throughout.

Prasū (i.e. Wasī-veri or Veron of Survey).	ASHKŪ (i.e. ASHKUND OF SURVEY).		English.
	(Titin).	(Majegal).	
v ^a rjemi	maṭs	maṭs	51. Man.
vesti	ishtremali	ishtremali	52. Woman.
.....	53. Wife.
kyurū	pr ^ā	plā	54. Child.
pinik	marāk	zag ^a , marōk	55. Son.
lūsh ^t tuk	mārēk	zū mārēk	56. Daughter.
.....	lāven	laven	57. Slave.
.....	peshpā	pishamats	59. Shepherd.
.....	Kudāi, Imra	60. God.
.....	yush	yush	61. Devil.
ūsūk	sō	so	62. Sun.
mesege	mas	mas	63. Moon.
istik	ista	istā	64. Star.
aneghe	aṇā	aṇā	65. Fire.
awe	abō	abō	66. Water.
vārek	amā	amā	67. House.
nrī	gōrā	gōru	68. Horse.
guṭū	ga	ga	69. Cow.
k ^a r ^ā k	kuṛī	kuṛī	70. Dog.
pshigi	pisans	p ^a chūk	71. Cat.
mush kakaghe	kukur	kukur	72. Cock.
.....	zalāi	73. Duck.
korū	khar	k ^a r ^a tek	74. Ass.
.....	ūkān (sing.)	shutūr	75. Camel.
nīdze	nīnasā	nīnase	76. Bird.
.....	dēm ¹	dīm ¹	77. Go.

¹ First person singular of the present and so throughout.

English.	KATĪ (i.e. BASHGALĪ OF SURVEY).		WĀRGALĪ.	
	(Kulum).	(Bargamaṭal).	(Kēgal).	(Zhōnjigal).
78. Eat . . .	yūnūm ¹ . . .	yūtum . . .	yāam . . .	yēam . . .
79. Sit . . .	nishin ^a m . . .	nishit ^a m . . .	nishinom . . .	nishinom . . .
80. Come . . .	ātsal ^a m (fut.) . . .	atsātom . . .	elom . . .	atsār ^o m . . .
81. Beat . . .	viēn ^a m . . .	viētum . . .	vēnom . . .	vier ^o m . . .
82. Stand . . .	uṭin ^a m . . .	utitum . . .	utinom . . .	utinom . . .
83. Die . . .	mr'ēu ^a m . . .	mr'ētum . . .	mrēnom . . .	mrēam . . .
84. Give . . .	pr'en ^a m . . .	pr'ētum . . .	palom . . .	prēam . . .
85. Run . . .	narg ^a n ^a m . . .	achunatum	sānyēom . . .
156. I am . . .	wūts as ^a m	om . . .	ōrim, bōm . . .
157. Thou art . . .	tū asish	osh . . .	ōrish, bōsh . . .
158. He is . . .	st ^a as ^a . . .	as ^a . . .	oi . . .	ōri, bō . . .
159. We are . . .	emā as ^a mish	omish . . .	ōrimish, bōmish . . .
160. You are . . .	shā as ^a r ^o	ow . . .	ōri, bōrē . . .
161. They are . . .	st ^a asht . . .	asht . . .	ot . . .	ōri (?), bōt . . .
179. I beat
180. Thou beatest
181. He beats
182. We beat
183. You beat
184. They beat

¹ First person singular of the present, and so throughout.

Prasū (i. e. Wasī-veri or Veron of Survey).	ASHKŪ (i. e. ASHKUND OF SURVEY).		English.
	(Titin.)	(Majegal.)	
...	yūm	yum	78. Eat.
...	nishēm	nishīm	79. Sit.
...	alim	āyam	80. Come.
...	viērum, lāum	lālom, lām	81. Beat.
...	utineom	utimestem	82. Stand.
...	mr'em	83. Dio.
...	pr'em	plēm	84. Give.
...	leah̄tēom	85. Run.
...	ai sem	(a)s ^a m	156. I am.
...	tū ses	as ^a s	157. Thou art.
...	yakā sei	sēi	158. He is.
...	im ^a semish	159. We are.
...	vi seg	160. You are.
...	yakāi sen	s ^a n	161. They are.
...	...	nishinést- ^a m, <i>I am sitting</i> .	179. I beat.
...	...	nishinést-es, <i>thou art sitting</i> .	180. Thou beatest.
...	...	nishinést-a, <i>he is sitting</i> .	181. He beats.
...	...	nishinést- ^a mish, <i>we are sit- ting</i> .	182. We beat.
...	...	nishinést-eke, <i>you are sit- ting</i> .	183. You beat.
...	...	nishinést-ene, <i>they are sit- ting</i> .	184. They beat.

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PASHAI (PASHAI). [Survey, pp. 89 ff.]

This language is spoken not only in the Kunar valley and in Laghman, but also in a zone extending from Wāigal in the East to Gulbahār (NE. of Chārikār) in the West. It is divided into a great number of considerably diverging dialects. These can be arranged in four groups.

(1) The North-Western Group, comprising the dialects near Gulbahār, in the Shutul valley, etc. It is characterized by the preservation not only of *tr*, *dr*, but also of *kr*, *gr*, *pr*, *br*, and *mr*, (e.g., *k^urum*, work; *k^urū*, shouting; *m^urī*, dead; *b^urōi*, *b^urōi*, brother), by the form *mōmā*, you, and by the ending of the first person plural, as in *aīs*, we are. This suffix presents the transitional form between the Khōwār -*as*, Pashai -*as*, -*aes*, and Veron (Prasū) -*ms^ho*, Wāigali and Katī -*mi^{sh}* (from -*masi* > * -*māsⁱ*).

The frequent transition of *ā* to *ō* and *ū*, and the formation of the present with *t* (*zhētoyem*, I am eating) connects this group with, —

(2) The dialects spoken in the Özbīn valley (west of Laghman, about Bali Khel and Ghas) and in the upper Alishang valley (about Najil).

Here *kr* and *pr* result in *sh*, and *gr* and *br* in *l*, while *tr* and *dr* are preserved (Özbīnī *sham*, work; *shavōr* (<*prahāra*-), wounded; *lōm^a*, a village; Najilī *lāy*, brother; but *tra*, three; *drōnōk*, rainbow.

(3) The dialects of Tagau, Nijrau, and Bedrau (in Ishpī, Iskyēn, Laurovān, etc.). Here also *pr* and *kr* result in *l* (e.g. Laurovānī *laār*, wounded; *lām*, work).

In all these three groups of dialects, the aspiration of medials has to some extent been preserved.

(4) This group comprises all the dialects of Laghman, Alingār, Kunar, and the lower Pech valley. Here *br*, *gr*, and also *dr* have developed into *l*, while *pr*, *kr*, and *tr* result in *thl* or similar sounds.

The First Sentences of the Parable in the Dialect of Kona Dīh, near Gulbahār.

Ī ādam dō putra dārāi. Tē kuchāst putrā-i-yakaṭī dādas-āi
 One man two sons had. Them from-among son-the-small father-his-to
 mārāta, ‘ai dādā, mui takhsīmas-am dē dā.’ Mālā tanka
 said, ‘O father, to-me part-mine (sign of acc.) give.’ Property his-own
 dē takhsīm kawata, tē dētea. Kē wakht pachawā putrā-i-yakaṭī
 (acc.) division he-made, to-them he-gave. Some time afterwards son-the-small
 chūkas-a dē gugia, sudūre jē gūi.
 all-his (acc.) seized, far to went.

In the Dialect of Laurovān (Tagau).

Ī ādamas dō ōya hāich. Suratalā putras-ā bāvai mārāikyē, ‘ai
 One man-to two children were. The-younger son-his father-to said, ‘O
 bābā, kor ke tānkyāi jiraē yēitik, maina dāya.’ Bādaz
 father, whatever that own part-thine comes, to-me give.’ Afterwards

bāsa māl guraik, aḍa suratalai dāikyē, aḍa aulai dāikyē.
father-his property seized, the-half younger-to gave, the-half elder-to gave.

Bādaz suratala putrasā, aḷṭ^a, nau dū kân, chūikya kor ke
Afterwards the-younger son-his, eight, nine days after, all whatever that
 jirāy-a yeyāik, jam kak^a. Sudūrāi vatan gyik.
part-to-his had-come, collected made. Far country went.

Dr. Morgenstierne has also supplied the following List of Words in the various dialects of Paṣhāi:—

SPECIMENS IN THE PASHAĪ LANGUAGE.

English.	GROUP 1.	GROUP 2.		GROUP 3.	GROUP 4.	
	(Gulbahār.)	(Ozbin.)	(Najil.)	(Laurvān.)	(Waigal.)	(Darra-i-nūr.)
1. One	ī	ī	ī	ī	ī	ī.
2. Two	dō	dō	dō	dō	dō	dō.
3. Three	trā	trā	tra	tra	thhlē	thlē
4. Four	chār	chōr	chōr	chār	chār	chār.
5. Five	pañja	pōuj	pānz ^h	pānja	panch	pañj.
6. Six	khē	çha	çha	çhā	shē	she.
7. Seven	sāta	sāt ^a	sāt ^a	sāta	sat	sat.
8. Eight	aṣṭa	āṣṭ ^a	āṣṭ ^a	ālṭa	aṣṭ	aṣṭ.
9. Nine	nawa	naw ^a	nāv	nau	nō	nō.
10. Ten	dā	dāe	dāi	daya	dē	dē.
11. Twenty	west	v ^a st	v ^a st	v ^a st	vest	vest.
12. Fifty	pinjā	dūya u dui
13. Hundred	sad, pañj ^a wust.	pānja viyā
14. I	ā	mō	mū	ā	mum, (ā)	ā.
15. Of me	mūi (mihī), ā (a me).	...	mū	mam	mum, (mam)	mum.
16. Mine	mau, mūst	mau	mōy	maina	mēnā, (mēnū)	mēnā, mēui.
17. We	hamā	...	hamā	hamē	amā.	amā.
18. Of us	hamā	hamōt	...	hamā
19. Our	hamāst	hamās
20. Thou	tū	...	tū	tū	(tū)	tū.
21. Of thee	tūi (tibī)	...	tū	tau	...	tō.
22. Thine	tau, tūst	tau, tōz	tōy	taina	(tēnā)	...
23. You	mōmā	myā	miā	myā	(emā)	emā
24. Of you	mōmā	...	miā	myā

English.	GROUP 1.	GROUP 2.		GROUP 3.	GROUP 4.	
	(Gulbahār.)	(Ozbīn.)	(Najil)	(Laurōvān.)	(Waigal.)	(Darra-i-nūr.)
25. Your . . .	mōmāst .	myōot	myā (ʔ)
26. He . . .	sa, sam	sa .	ase	se
27. Of him . . .	tē, tēsē	ātē, tē
28. His . . .	tēst .	atyōd	tēse
29. They . . .	tēma	uma
30. Of them . . .	tē	ātēda
31. Their . . .	tēmēst
32. Hand . . .	hōst, cha- pilū.	astī-ēm .	hōst .	hās-t .	ast-ēm .	ast-yem.
33. Foot . . .	pāi	pā .	pā-em .	pā.
34. Nose . . .	nūst .	nōs .	nōst .	nās-t .	nās-t .	nās.
35. Eye . . .	achhūi .	achi .	achi .	achhi .	anch, (anchi)	anch.
36. Mouth . . .	gilūn .	gālōn .	dūr .	gilāu	dōr.
37. Tooth . . .	dandūn .	dōn .	dandē-yem .	dān-d .	dand-ēm .	dān.
38. Ear . . .	kayū, kōi .	khōi .	kayēti-m .	kai .	kār .	hār.
39. Hair . . .	lām .	zhūtr .	zhūtri-em .	zhūtr .	lūsh .	chāl.
40. Head . . .	shir .	kapōl .	kapal-am .	shir, kapāl .	sir .	shir.
41. Tongue . . .	jiba .	jib .	jib-ōm .	jāp .	jev-ām .	jeb.
42. Belly . . .	gaṛe	kuchi-em .	kūch .	kuchi-m
43. Back . . .	kūi .	navāti .	pī-om .	navāti .	gēn-im (waist)	gyēn.
44. Iron . . .	chimūr .	āhenū .	chūmur .	chūmār .	(chimūr)	chemār.
45. Gold . . .	tālū .	tālū .	tāla .	tālā .	(telā)	shōneg zar.
46. Silver . . .	nokrū .	zar .	zar .	nokra, chhelak zar	(zar)	sheleg zar.
47. Father . . .	dādā .	bā ^a .	bāw .	bāw .	bābū-m .	tatī.
48. Mother . . .	āl .	āl .	āl .	āl .	āyā-m .	āl
49. Brother . . .	bāroi	lāyo-m .	lāyā .	lāa-m .	lāyā-m.
50. Sister . . .	saiwū .	sāyū-m .	sayo-m .	sayā .	sētek .	sāyā-m.

English.	GROUP 1.	GROUP 2.		GROUP 3.	GROUP 4.	
	(Gulbahār.)	(Ozbīm.)	(Najīl.)	(Laurōvān.)	(Waigal.)	(Darra-i-nūr.)
51. Man . . .	w ^a r ^a malū	vir .	vīr	ād ^a mī.
52. Woman . . .	māshī .	..	ājezū, māshī.	az ^a zē .	zāeb .	zāip.
53. Wife	māshe- kaletrīm.	mas̄hī	thlekā.
54. Child . . .	bālkāl (pl.)	bārā
55. Son . . .	putr ^a .	putri-em .	putri-em .	pūtr ^a .	pu ^h lélé-m .	pu ^h li-em.
56. Daughter . . .	jānjika, wéya.	jansekaṭi .	viya-m .	vōy .	kiṭālek .	kiṭālek.
59. Shepherd	(pashwalā)
61. Devil	(dō)
62. Sun . . .	sura .	sur .	sur .	sur .	sur .	sur.
63. Moon . . .	mātau .	mōi .	mē .	mai .	mā .	māi.
64. Star . . .	sitāru	sitāru .	*stārīch .	tayurīk .	tāra.
65. Fire . . .	lokana, izhnai.	angōr .	angōr .	angar .	angār .	añār.
66. Water . . .	würk .	ōrg .	ōrg .	var ^a k .	wark .	war ^a k.
67. House . . .	andarū .	vōi .	yōi .	vai .	gōshīn .	gōshīn.
68. Horse . . .	gōrū .	gōrō .	gōrū .	gōrā .	gōrā .	gōrā.
69. Cow . . .	gāvandī .	gāvandī .	gōluñ .	gaundī .	gōlañ .	gā, gōlañ.
70. Dog . . .	shūn .	shīōn .	shūng .	shūn .	shūrīn, (shunīn) .	shurīn.
71. Cat . . .	pishūk .	pushāk .	p ^a shāk .	pshāk .	uṇdarek .	uṇdali.
72. Cock . . .	khurūs, (hen) kukūr.	khurūs, (hen) kūkūr .	khurūs, (hen) *st ^a ri kukūrī .	khurūs, (hen) kukūrī .	bān .	kukūr.
73. Duck	murghāvi .	chūchūla .	murghavi
74. Ass . . .	ulūk .	khōr .	khōr .	khār .	kharatā .	karatā.
75. Camel . . .	ushtūr .	shūtūr .	shūtūr .	ūṭhūr .	sutir .	shutur.
76. Bird . . .	pakhīm .	paḥīn .	paḥīn .	par ^a nda .	(jinawar)
77. Go . . .	parēwam ¹	param ¹	pa ¹ !
78. Eat . . .	zhēwam .	zhāitaem ¹ .	zhētayam ¹ .	ayam .	āgam ¹ .	yat !
79. Sit . . .	nītikam	nīkem .	n ^a yīkam .	nēvām .	neō !

¹ Present sing. 1, and so throughout, except in the last column, in which it is Imperative sing. 2.

English.	GROUP 1.	GROUP 2.		GROUP 3.	GROUP 4.	
	(Gulbahār.)	(Ozbin.)	(Najil.)	(Laurovān.)	(Waigal.)	(Darra-i-nūr.)
80. Come	āilekem (<i>I came</i>)	yagām	...	ēt!
81. Beat	hanwam	...	hantayam	hanam
82. Stand	ḡakam	...	zhōnam	zhānam
83. Die	murī (<i>dead</i>)	lik (<i>dead</i>)
84. Give	dēwam	dāyam
85. Run	dawetim	chat ^a gam
156. I am	im	...	yam	am	...	aim.
157. Thou art	i	...	ē	āi	...	ai.
158. He is	a, shī	...	a. shī	asta (<i>m.</i>), a (<i>f.</i>), shik (<i>n.</i>)	...	as, shī.
159. We are	aīs	...	yēu	ama	...	ais.
160. You are	unda	...	und ^a	āi	...	ai.
161. They are	un, shīn	...	un	ān	...	ain.
179. I beat	...	zhāitāem, <i>I am eating.</i>	nēvām, <i>I sit down.</i>	āakam, <i>I am eating.</i>
180. Thou beatest	...	zhāitōe, <i>thou art eating.</i>	nēvai, <i>thou s i t t e s t down.</i>	āaki, <i>thou art eating.</i>
181. He beats	...	zhāitō, <i>he is eating.</i>	nēvās, <i>he sits down.</i>	yāgha (?), <i>he is eating.</i>
182. We beat	...	zhāitāes, <i>we are eating.</i>	nēvās, <i>we sit down.</i>	āakas, <i>we are eating.</i>
183. You beat	...	zhāitōnde, <i>you are eating.</i>	nēvai, <i>you sit down.</i>	āako, <i>you are eating.</i>
184. They beat	...	zhāitōn, <i>they are eating.</i>	nēvian, <i>they sit down.</i>	āakan, <i>they are eating.</i>

TIRĀHĪ.

Page 110.—On page 2, line 22, of Part ii of Volume VIII, I stated that no specimens could be obtained of the Tirāhī language. All that had hitherto been known about it was contained in a short list of words published by Leech in the year 1838.¹ This was sufficient to show that it belonged to the Kalāshā-Pashai Sub-Group of the Kāfir Group of the Dardic languages.

According to Leech, the speakers once inhabited the Tirā Valley (hence the name of the tribe and of their language), now the home of the Afridī Afghāns, and, in consequence of a feud breaking out between the Ōrakzāis and the Afridīs, they left that tract and settled in the Ningrahār country, where they are now found. Their principal villages are at the present day said to be Jaba, Mitarānī, and Barā-khēl. Jaba is shown on sheet 38J of the four miles to the inch Indian Survey degree sheets, and on sheet 14 of the Indian Atlas sheets on the same scale. It is situated in the Kōt-darra Valley south of the Kābul River, about 20 miles in a direct line west of Dakka Fort, and about half way between Dakka and Jalalabad, but south of the main road.

Among their Afghān neighbours, these people have not the best of characters, and a Tirāhī is generally unwilling to admit that he is a member of the tribe or that he knows anything of its language. So far has this gone that in the neighbouring parts of British India, in the Peshawar District, there is an idea very generally current that the Tirāhī language is only a kind of gibberish used by transfrontier criminals when they wish to speak among themselves without being understood by outsiders.

For more than twenty-five years I had been endeavouring to secure specimens of this form of speech, but without success. Finally, Sir Aurel Stein added to the heavy debt of obligations owed by me to him by undertaking the search for a man who could speak it. In March 1919, by the friendly help of the late Colonel Sir George Roos-Keppel, then the Chief Commissioner of the North-West Frontier Province, an old labourer was found in Peshawar who professed to know Tirāhī. Unfortunately, to this accomplishment was added the fact that he was a confirmed opium eater, and after a few words and sentences had been collected from him, the attempt at probing his befogged memory had to be abandoned. Sir Aurel, however, did not abandon the quest, and his next attempt was more successful. In December 1921, through the help of his old and devoted Surveyor, Khan Sahib Afrāz-gul, now of the Survey of India, there was found an intelligent old man named Shāh Rasūl, whose original home was in Jaba, but who had left his country for many years and was now resident in Nawa-kala. When Sir Aurel found that long absence from his home had impaired his facility in speaking his mother tongue, Shāh Rasūl secured the presence of a younger man whose memory was more trustworthy. Both the men were completely illiterate, and Sir Aurel found some difficulty in getting them to understand grammatical niceties such as the distinction between the different tenses of a verb; but, with their aid, he succeeded in writing down a Tirāhī translation of the Urdū version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, and in compiling a valuable list of words and illustrative sentences. These he has most

¹ J. A. S. B., Vol. vii (1838), pp. 733-4.

kindly placed at my disposal; and from them I have been able to compile the following grammatical sketch of the language. This is not complete, but it gives a very fair idea of the general features of Tirāhī. I also add the version of the Parable as written down by Sir Aurel (with an English interlinear translation of my own) together with the list of words and sentences prepared by him, and to the whole I append a vocabulary, which includes not only all the words in the above-mentioned specimens but also all those contained in Leech's word-list of 1838. There are a few words and phrases the meaning of which I have not succeeded in making clear to my own mind, and such I have marked with notes of interrogation, but even with these I think that, thanks to Sir Aurel Stein, a considerable advance in our knowledge of an interesting language has been attained.

As already stated, Tirāhī is certainly a Dardic language, and is closely connected with Kalāshā, Pashai, and Gawar-bati, but it is also to be noted that it shows clear points of relationship with Ṣhīnā and Kāshmīrī, Dardic languages spoken far to the North-East. Compare, for instance, Tirāhī *sure*, a child, with Kāshmīrī *shur*; *mala*, a father, with Ṣhīnā *mālō* and Kāshmīrī *mōl*; and *utha* (not *uṭha*), stand up, with Kāshmīrī *wōth*. As usual in Dardic languages, there are several words which have preserved in a remarkable manner the forms that obtained in the Sanskrit of two thousand years ago. Such are *dēn*, a cow, as compared with the Sanskrit *dhēnuh*, and *ast*, a hand, as compared with the Sanskrit *hastah*. It is hardly necessary to add that, surrounded as the speakers are by Afghāns, they have freely borrowed from Paṣtō.

The Pashai already referred to is spoken in Laghmān, north of the River Kābul. Ningrahār, where Tirāhī is spoken, lies to the south of that river. Further south, again, in Wazīristān, we come upon Ōrmurī, an Eranian form of speech, used by an immigrant tribe distinct from the Afghāns. It is evident that at the time when the Ōrmurs arrived at their present site, they found themselves in close contact with a tribe of Dardic origin, for their language, though Eranian, shows clear traces of Dardic influence. Further south we come to the Khétrāns of Thal-Chotiālī. These people speak a corrupt Lahndā much mixed with Dardic forms. Finally, as has been pointed out in Volume VIII, Part i of the Survey, still further south we come to Sindhī, and in this, too, we find relics of some old Dardic language. In this way, Tirāhī forms an important link connecting the Dardic languages spoken in Dardistān, north of the Kābul, with a chain of three languages which show traces of ancient Dardic influence, and reach down to the mouth of the Indus. It is not necessary here to discuss the question of the extension of Dardic languages further south. It is sufficient to state that traces of them have been recognized in the Bhīl languages of Central India, and even, with considerable plausibility, in the Kōkaṇī dialect of Marāṭhī. If this last identification is finally accepted, Tirāhī gives us the hitherto missing link in a chain of languages once reaching from the Hindūkush to Goa.

In the following pages, I give a reference for each word quoted, showing its original location. In such references "Par." indicates the version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, quoted by verse-number, and "L." indicates the List of Words and Sentences prepared by Sir Aurel Stein.

Pronunciation.

It must be remembered that the materials collected depend almost entirely on what was uttered by two illiterate men. Sir Aurel Stein, in recording the Tirāhī words uttered by them, most rightly refrained from any attempt at securing apparent uniformity, but wrote down for each word as nearly as possible the exact sound he heard in each particular case. In recording a language which has previously been reduced to writing, there is a more or less fixed standard of spelling and of pronunciation with which it is possible to secure conformity; but when a language has no standard,—and to a less extent, even in every language which has a standard,—the actual pronunciation of each word varies each time it is uttered, according to its collocation in the sentence or the mood of the speaker. In languages like English or Hindōstānī, these changes are partly held in check by the existence of a standard to which the speaker insensibly conforms, but in a language such as Tirāhī which has no standard, they are much more considerable, and we find the same word pronounced by these men in very different ways at different times. For instance, for 'man' the speakers at one time said *ād'm* and at another time *adam*; for 'good,' at one time *braḍa*, and at another *breḍa*; and for 'child,' at one time *bad'na*, with no stress on the penultimate, and at another time *bal'dna*, with a strong stress on the penultimate. Under such circumstances, it would at present be dangerous to lay down any rules for a standard pronunciation of Tirāhī, and we must await further information on the subject. Suffice it to say here that this uncertainty occurs chiefly in regard to the vowels, and that the consonantal system appears to be pretty constant and to agree with that of the other Dardic languages.

The Article.

There appears to be an indefinite article corresponding to the Persian *yā ī waḥdat* and the Kāshmīrī *-ā*. It is formed by adding *i* to the noun. A pretty certain example is *kharāb badani*, a bad boy (*bad'na*) (L. 129).

For the definite article, the demonstrative pronoun *le* or *lā* is very commonly employed. Thus :—

le pakīrasi ek āna de, give one anna to the faqīr (L. 84).

le parāna kuṣ'ras zīn, the saddle of the white horse (L. 226).

le zīn kuṣ'ra dāk khum thā, put the saddle on the horse's back (L. 227).

le kila ek banyā-ma achhita ti, (I) have bought (it) from a shopkeeper of the village (L. 241).

chāna mala la breḍa batsa kukhto, thy father slaughtered the good calf (Par. 27).

lā gāna put'r ghūsā khum gā, the elder son became an auger (Par. 28).

The demonstrative pronoun *lema* is similarly used before place-names. Thus :—

lema Jaba-manzum sawa kuṣ'ra braḍē tīna, in Jaba all horses are good (L. 140).

lema Kābula-manzum sawe barē kharāba tīna, in Kābul all mares are bad (L. 141).

DECLENSION.

Nouns Substantive.

Gender.—There are not sufficient materials to form any rules as regards gender. All that can be said is that the feminine gender is recognized, and that many feminine nouns end in *e* or *ē* when, in India, they would end in *ī*. Thus we have *strē* (Indian *strī*), a woman (List, 52, 53, 128); *achchhe* (Kāshmirī *āchhī*), an eye (L. 35); *dē* (Indian *dhī*), a daughter (L. 56, 110); *barē*, a mare (L. 139). With this we may compare *braḍa adam*, a good man (L. 120), and *braḍa strē*, a good woman (L. 128), but *braḍē strē*, good women (L. 130); *sura*, small (L. 28), but *surē*, a little girl (L. 56); *sawa kuz^rra*, all horses (L. 140), and *sawe barē*, all mares (L. 141); *tī*, he is (L. 158), and *tē*, she is (L. 53, 56).

Declension.—The *Nominative* case singular calls for no remarks. It takes no termination. When a noun is the subject of a transitive verb in a tense derived from the past participle, it is put into the *Agentive* case, which will be described further on.

The *Accusative* case singular is the same in form as the *nominative*. Thus:—

le pakīrasi ek āna dē, give one anna to the faqīr (L. 84).

asto-manzum angur tsiyā, pade-manzum panā tsiyā, put ye a ring on the hand, put ye a shoe on the foot (Par. 22).

ek breḍa batṣa āvinēs, bring ye a good calf for him (Par. 23).

kui-ma uwa prēla, draw water from the well (L. 237).

khusālī karēm, let us make rejoicing (Par. 23).

le adam brok do, beat that man well (L. 236).

le khat malasi dēm, I give this letter to the father (L. 103).

The object of a transitive verb in a tense derived from the past participle is, as usual in connected languages, put in the *nominative* case, the subject being put into the case of the *Agent*. The following examples will suffice:—

chāna mala lā breḍa batṣa kukhto, thy father slaughtered the good calf; lit. the good calf was slaughtered by the father (Par. 27).

mala gana putrasi jawāb dīta, the father gave answer to the elder son; lit. by the father answer was given to the elder son (Par. 31).

mala rām kere, the father made compassion; lit. by the father compassion was made (Par. 20).

sure put^r tānu māl jama kere, the younger son collected his property; lit. by the younger son his property was made collected (Par. 13).

General Oblique case.—The *General Oblique* case singular is sometimes the same in form as the *nominative*. Thus:—

ghusā khum, in anger (Par. 28).

badmāshī khum, in debauchery (Par. 13).

kui-ma, from the well (L. 237).

kursi-ma, from the chair (L. 82).

dāk khum, (put) on (the horse's) back (L. 227). Cf. *dāka khum* below.

hukm-ma bāhr, outside (i.e., against) an order (Par. 29).

nazar-manzum, in (thy) sight (Par. 18). Cf. *nazaram-manzum* below.

put^r khum, on the son (L. 228).

More often it ends in *a*, even when the nominative singular does not end in that letter. Thus :—

panda khum, (nom. *pand*), on a journey (L. 224).

dāka khum (nom. *dāk*), (riding) on the back (of a horse) (L. 230). Cf. *dāk khum* above.

le mulk^a-manzum (nom. *mulk*), in that country (Par. 14). Cf. *mulke-manzum* below.

mala tarafē (nom. *mala*), towards the father. *mala-ma*, from a father (L. 104).

māla-manzum (nom. *māl*), in the property (Par. 12). Cf. *māla taksīm*, division of the property (Par. 12).

dāma khum (nom. *dām*), (bind) with a rope (L. 236).

braḍa adama-ma (nom. *adam*), from a good man (L. 122).

thāna-manzum (nom. *thān*), in the house (L. 83, 130, 223, 226, 233).

khāra khum (nom. *khār*), on the top (L. 229).

lema waktā khum (nom. *wakt*), at that time (L. 162). So *wakta-manzum* (L. 163).

When a general oblique case is followed by an enclitic word beginning with a consonant, that consonant is sometimes doubled, and one of the pair is added to the oblique case. Thus :—

chāna nazaram-manzum (for *nazara-manzum*), in thy sight (Par. 21).

brichat-tōna (nom. *brich*), under a tree (L. 230). Cf. *ut ti*, for *ū ti*, he has come, given below under the perfect tense.

Occasionally we find the general oblique case ending in some other vowel. Such are :—

mala tarafē (nom. *taraf*) *ū*, he came in the direction of (i.e., towards) the father (Par. 23).

le mulke-manzum, in that country (Par. 14). Cf. *mulk^a-manzum* above.

pade-manzum (nom. *padī*), on the foot (Par. 22).

urē (or *ōre*)-*manzum*, in his heart (Par. 16, 17). The Nom. Sing. of this word appears to be *urē*, as in Par. 22.

tsuk^a daze pas (nom. *daz*), after a few days (Par. 13).

asto-mānzum (nom. *ast*), on the hand (Par. 22).

jango-waktā (nom. *jang*), at the time of fighting (L. 163).

Two words are irregular. The word *dē*, a daughter, has its oblique singular *dun*, and *spaz*, a sister, has *spazun*. These will be dealt with lower down.

Another form of the oblique ends in *asi*, often shortened to *as* or *is*. This is most often used as a dative, but is also used in other collocations. Thus :—

braḍa adamasi, to a good man (L. 121). *le rūpai le adamasi dē*, give this rupee to that man (L. 234).

dēsi, to a daughter (L. 112).

gā dūr mulkasi, he went to a far country (Par. 13).

malasi, to a father (L. 103). *mē tānu malasi bazam*, I shall go to my father (Par. 18). *le malasi jawāb dīta*, he gave answer to the father (Par. 29).

mē le adam diyanasi dīta wa, I gave that man for a beating (i.e., to be beaten) (L. 177).

- mên samo tre ād^mq khārasi da bazam*, we three men all go to the town (L. 17).
masi munāsib, proper for me (Par. 21).
le pakīrasi ek āna dē, give one anna to the faqīr (L. 84).
mala gāṇa putrasi jawāb dita, the father gave answer to the elder son (Par. 31).
au az thānasi ēma, I come to the house to-day (L. 80).
lās pūkhla kere, made conciliation to him (Par. 28).
ek tānu naukaris ga ti, he is gone to one of his servants (Par. 26).

This termination is also commonly used for the genitive, and, in this case, *as* seems to be more commonly employed than *asi*. Thus:—

- lemas shisi* (nom. *shī*) *kimat*, the price of that thing (L. 232). Here we have both *as* and (*a*)*si*.
braḍa adamas thān bōgha ti, the house of a good man is near (L. 120).
le parāna kuz^rras zīn, the saddle of the white horse (L. 226).
le thān malas ti, this is the father's house (L. 102).
chāna sanās (nom. *sanā*) *dante brōk trighna tīna*, the teeth of thy dog are very sharp (L. 146).
myāna trōras put^r, the son of my uncle (L. 225).

It should be noted that it is sometimes difficult to say whether this termination *as* is a case termination, or is a pronominal suffix. In the following, *as* probably means 'his':—

- tānu mālas badmāshī khum chi kere*, he wasted *his* substance in riotous living (Par. 13). But in this instance it is also possible that *mālas* is a dative used as a definite accusative.
le malas gā, *his* father went (Par. 28). Here the *as* is almost certainly a pronominal suffix.

In the following, the termination *asi* forms the general oblique case:—

- khā thānasi bōgha ō*, when he came near the house (Par. 25).

Sometimes the termination *asi* is employed where we should use the ablative. Thus:—

- te kāma adamasi* (or *adama-ma*) *achhita ti*, from what man didst thou buy that (L. 240)?
myāna dūnsi khat ut ti, a letter has come from my daughter (L. 113).
lema jaisi (nom. *jai*) *Kashmīr katēsi dūr ti*, how far is Kashmir from this place (L. 222)?

We have an ablative of comparison in:—

- lema brījasi le kaza ti*, this is higher than that tower (L. 136).
lemas spazunsi le ad^mmas brā kaza ti, the brother of that man is taller than his sister (L. 231).

We shall see subsequently that an ablative of comparison can also be made with the help of the postposition *ma*.

With regard to the above examples, note that the words *dē*, a daughter, and *spaz*, a sister, form the oblique singular by adding *un*,—thus, *dun* and *spazun*. Note also that, as we shall see, the termination *asi* also occurs in the plural. It seems probable that here plural forms have been carelessly used for the singular.

We have just seen that the *Genitive* is commonly indicated by the termination *as*. It may also be indicated by simply prefixing the unaltered word to the governing noun. Thus :—

le kila ek banyā-ma, from a shopkeeper of the village (L. 241).

brēkhā (? nominative) *khāra khum*, on the top of a hill (L. 229).

kuz^ra dāk khum, on the horse's back (L. 227). Cf. *kuz^ras zin*, the horse's saddle, in 226.

chāna mala thāna-manzum, in thy father's house (L. 223).

myāna mal^a brōk mazdurāno wāna, there were many servants of my father (Par. 17).

tsālē tsindar, a goat's kid (Par. 29).

āsmān nazar-manzum, in the sight of heaven (Par. 18, 21).

domāma āwāz, the sound of a drum (Par. 25).

galiz wakta khum, at the time of theft (L. 164).

It is probable that the *Agentive* case singular employed for the subject of a verb in a tense formed from the past participle, should be described as identical in form with the general oblique case as in other Dardic languages. But, as we have seen, this general oblique case is itself often identical in form with the nominative, and it happens that the few instances of the *Agentive* that occur in the Parable all also agree in form with the nominative singular. It may be mentioned that in Ōrmurī, an Eranian language, spoken not far off in Waziristan, which is much influenced by Dardic, the *Agentive* is always the same in form as the nominative.

The following examples of the *Agentive* case of nouns substantive are found in the Parable. No instances occur in the List of Words :—

sūrē put^r mala ditanas, the younger son said to the father (Par. 12). See the remarks on *ditanas* on p. 294, under the head of the past tense.

sure put^r tānu māl jama kere, the younger son collected his property (Par. 12).

le adam tānu tsakalānsi prēgē, that man sent (him) to his fields (Par. 15).

mala tānu naukarānosi arē, the father said to his servants (Par. 22).

mala gaṇa putrasī jawāb dita, the father gave answer to the elder son (Par. 31).

In two cases the *Agentive* case is formed by the addition of the postposition *na* (compare the Hindōstānī *nē*). This postposition is more often used to form a dative, and in the first of the two instances it is employed in both senses :—

putre-na le-na arē, the son said to him (Par. 21).

le-na lāsī arē, he said to him (Par. 27).

Closely allied to the *Agentive* is the *Instrumental* case. One example of it occurs in the Parable, in which it is formed by the postposition *ni* :—

ao lemaji odasta-ni marā gam, I am dying here of hunger (Par. 17).

The *Dative* case has been already dealt with in connexion with the termination *asi*. As just stated, it is also formed with the help of the postposition *na*. Thus :—

le-na arē, said to him (Par. 21).

This dative form is also (as in other languages) employed to make a definite accusative, as in :—

lema-na breda jānā-na anā, bring ye for him the good garment (Par. 22).

Formation of the Plural.—The plural is often the same as the singular. This is especially the case when a noun ends in *a* or *ā*, but there are also other cases :—

mala, fathers (sing. *mala*) (L. 106) ; *kuz^{ra}*, horses (sing. *kuz^{ra}*) (L. 140) ; *sanā*, dogs (sing. *sanā*) (L. 148).

panā, in *pade-manzum panā tsiyā*, put ye a shoe (or shoes) on his foot (or feet), may be either singular or plural (Par. 22).

osē, deer (sing. *osē*) (L. 155).

az brōke stōre (sing. *stōre*) *tīna*, to-day there are many stars (L. 64).

myāna thāna-manzum brōk braḍē strē (sing. *strē*) *tīna*, in my house there are many good women (L. 130).

lema-ma lā rūpai (sing. *rūpai*) *achhito*, take those rupees from him (L. 235).

le ādam tānu māl (sing. *māl*) *tsarū ti*, that man is grazing his cattle (L. 229).

dē, daughters (sing. *dē*) (L. 115). *dēn*, cows (sing. *dēn*) (L. 145). *gō*, bulls (sing. *gō*) (L. 144).

le myāna dē panzī sansar (sing. *sansar*) *tē*, this my daughter is fifteen years (old) (L. 111).

lema Kābula-manzum sawe barē (sing. *barē*) *kharāba tīna*, in Kābul all mares are bad (L. 141).

Sometimes *a* is added to form the plural. Thus :—

ek ad^{mas} do put^{ra} (sing. *put^{ra}*) *wāna*, a certain man had two sons (Par. 11).

chāna mala thāna-manzum katisi put^{ra} tīna, how many sons are there in thy father's house (L. 223) ?

le ād^{ma} (sing. *ād^m*) *kharāb tīna*, those men are bad (L. 29). Cf. *ād^{mo}*, below.

tā tre ād^{ma} kokhyār tiza, you three men are clever (L. 23).

braḍa adama (sing. *adam*) *lema khār-manzum brōk tīna*, there are many good men in this town (L. 124).

Sometimes the plural ends in *e* or *ē*. This is especially a feminine ending, but it may also be masculine. Thus :—

tsālē (sing. *tsālī*), she-goats (L. 152).

chāna sanās dante (sing. *dant*) *brōk triḡhna tīna*, the teeth of thy dog are very sharp (L. 146).

The word *wraṇi* is plural, but I do not know the singular. It occurs in *prēḡi wraṇi tsarai*, sent (him) to feed (?) sheep. I presume that the word means 'sheep,' and that it has been used, in order to avoid giving offence by using the word for 'swine.' Compare the Ōrmurī *wrai*, a sheep. In Paṣhtō, the same word means 'lamb.'

The plural ends in *o* in *mēn samo tre ād^{mo} khārasī da bazam*, we three men all go to the town (L. 17). Compare, however, *ād^{ma}*, above. In *muzdurāno*, servants (Par. 17), *o* has been added to a Paṣhtō or Persian plural. In two other words *a* is similarly added instead of *o*. These are *ukhāna* (sing. *ūkh*), camels, and *marghāna* (sing. *margh*), birds. With *ukhāna*, compare the Paṣhtō *ukhān*, oblique *ukhānō*.

The Oblique Plural ends in *an*. Thus :—

braḍa adaman thāna sūra tīna, the houses of the good men are small (L. 125).

sawa braḍa adaman le khabar dē-o, give the news to all good men (L. 126).

wraṇin khō, (?) the food of the sheep (Par. 16). Here the meaning of *khō* is doubtful. Regarding the meaning of *wraṇi*, see above.

sawa brijan-ma le briḡ kaza tī, that is the highest of all towers (L. 137).

In the following the oblique plural ends in *ī*, apparently a singular form — *chāna māl-maṭā strīzī* (sing. nom. *strīza*) *khūm chī kere*, he wasted thy substance on females (Par. 30).

Sometimes we find an oblique plural ending, as in Persian in *ān*. Thus:—

gaṇa put^r tsakalān-manzum wā, the elder son was in the fields (Par. 25).

sarwa thānān-ma chāna thān braḍa ti, thy house is the best of all houses (L. 134).

It ends in *āna* in *tānu dōstāna sama*, with my friends (Par. 29).

At other times we have the Paṣtō oblique plural in *ānō*. Thus:—

tānu mazdūrāno-khūm mē sama karē, make me equal among thy servants (Par. 19). Compare the nominative plural *mazdūrāno* (Par. 17) mentioned above.

In the following we have *-gāna*, which may be compared with the Paṣtō *-gānō*:—

lētik sansaragāna chāna khidmat au da karem, for so many years I am doing thy service (Par. 29).

In this connexion also may be mentioned the irregular noun *dē*, a daughter, which has *dun* for its oblique plural, as well as for its oblique singular (L. 116-118). Thus, *myāna dun umar*, the age of my daughters (L. 116). As already stated, it seems probable that *dun* is properly only plural, and, that when used for the singular, it is simply an instance of carelessness.

On the other hand, the singular is often used instead of the plural, as in:—

domāma āwāz, the sound of drums (Par. 26).

lema tre bad^ana (plural) *malasi* (plural) *khābar ut ti*, information has come from the fathers of these three children (L. 109).

pade-manzum (sing. nom. *padī*) *panā tsiyā*, put ye shoes (or a shoe) on his feet (or foot) (Par. 22).

The use of the singular form *malasi* for the plural ablative is further illustrated by the following examples, in which the singular termination *asi* reappears as *si* added to the plural oblique case:—

dunsi, to or from daughters (L. 117-8).

le adam tānu tsakalānsi prēgī, that man sent (him) to his fields (Par. 15).

braḍa adamansi khābar ut ti, news has come from good men (L. 127).

mala tānu naukarānosi aṛī, the father said to his servants (Par. 22). In this example, the termination *si* has been added to a borrowed Paṣtō form.

Subject to the foregoing remarks, the following paradigms may be quoted from the Standard List of Words and Sentences (Nos. 101-9, 119-127, 110-8):—

	Singular.	Plural.
Nom.	<i>mala</i> , a father.	<i>mala</i> .
Gen.	<i>malas</i>	<i>māla</i> .
Dat.	<i>malasi</i>	<i>mālasī</i> .
Abl.	<i>mala-ma</i>	<i>malasi</i> .

	Singular.	Plural.
Nom.	<i>braḍa adam</i> , a good man	<i>braḍa adama</i> .
Gen.	<i>braḍa adamas</i>	<i>braḍa adaman</i> .
Dat.	<i>braḍa adamasi</i>	<i>braḍa adaman</i> .
Abl.	<i>braḍa adama-ma</i>	<i>braḍa adamansi</i> .
Nom.	<i>dē</i> , a daughter	<i>dē</i> .
Gen.	<i>dē</i>	<i>dun</i> .
Dat.	<i>dēsi</i>	<i>dunsi</i> .
Abl.	<i>dunsi</i> (? plural).	<i>dunsi</i> .

Other relations of time or place are indicated with the aid of postpositions. Of these, the following have been noted :—

bōgha, near, governing the dative, as in :—

khā thānasi bōgha ō, when he came near the house (Par. 25).

bāhr, outside, governing the ablative, as in :—

ao chāna hukum-ma bāhr nā gim, I did not go outside (*i.e.*, disobey) thy command (Par. 29).

dapāra, for the sake of, borrowed from Paṣhtō, and governing the general oblique case, as in :—

te lema dapāra breḍa batṣa kukhto, for his sake thou slaughteredst the good calf (Par. 30).

khum. The general meaning of this seems to be 'on', but there are other derivative meanings. It governs the general oblique case :—

le zīn kuz'ra dāk khum thā, put the saddle on the horse's back (L. 227).

lema ad'mas put'r khum mē brok ditina kere tina, I have made many stripes on that man's son (L. 228).

le ādom tāna māl brekhta khāra khum tsarū ti, that man is grazing his cattle on the top of the hill (L. 229).

le ādam kuz'ra dāka khum spāra ga, that man is mounted on a horse's back (L. 230).

chāna māl-maṭū strizī khum chi kere, wasted thy property on females (Par. 30).

ao az gāna panda khum gā wāma, I went on a long way to-day (L. 224).

lē gāna put'r ghussā khum gā, the elder son became on anger (*i.e.*, became angry) (Par. 28).

le adam dāma khum tare, bind that man with a rope (L. 236).

mē suro wāma lema wakta khum, at that time I was small (L. 162).

le adam dūr wa galiz wakta khum, that man was away at the time of theft (L. 164).

tānu mazdūrāno khum mē sama karē, make me like (one) among thy servants (Par. 19).

khare, near, with, governing the general oblique case, as in :—

tē mēkha mē khare wē, thou wast always with me (Par. 31).

lā khare natī gā (Par. 15) appears to mean 'took refuge near him,' but is doubtful.

ma is usually a postposition of the ablative. It is added to the general oblique case. Thus :—

an lema kursi-ma uṭhum, I stand up from this chair (L. 82).

mala-ma, from a father (L. 104).

braḍa adama-ma khabar ut ti, news has come from a good man (L. 122).

lema-ma lā rūpai achhito, take those rupees from him (L. 235).

kui-ma uwa prēla, draw water from the well (L. 227).

lema-ma lā brok braḍe wā, from this (*i.e.*, because) he was very well (Par. 27).

We have ablatives of comparison in :—

myāna-ma chāna thān braḍa ti, thy house is better than mine (L. 133).

sawa thānān-ma chāna thān braḍa ti, thy house is better than all houses (L. 134).

sawa brijan-ma le brij kaza ti, this tower is higher than all towers (L. 137).

Certain postpositions or prepositions govern the ablative with this *ma*, as in :—

hukum-ma bāhr, outside an order (Par. 29), already quoted.

pas diyan-ma, after beating, *i.e.*, having beaten (L. 178).

This postposition is occasionally found with other meanings, as in :—

lema-ma breḍa jāmā-na anā, bring ye for him the good garment (Par. 22).

lema-ma khabar gā ti, of (*i.e.*, concerning) him it is said (L. 27).

Sometimes it appears to be used to form a genitive, as in :—

te-ma, of thee (L. 21); *tā-ma*, of you (L. 24).

lema-ma kram kharāb ti, their business is bad (L. 31). It is, however, impossible to be certain about the first two without any context, and the last sentence perhaps means 'owing to them the business is bad'.

manzum, in, with other derived meanings. It is used with the general oblique case. Thus :—

le mulke-manzum brōk grānī wē, a great famine happened in that land (Par. 14).

le ure-manzum le khiyāl wa, in his heart there was this thought (Par. 16).

So *lā tānu ore-manzum aṛi*, he said in his heart (Par. 17).

chāna nazar-(or nazaram-) manzum gunagār bēm, I am a sinner in thy sight (Par. 18, 21).

az myāna thāna-manzum ek dēn m'ra gā tē, to-day a cow has died in my house (L. 83).

myāna thāna-manzum brōk braḍe strē tīna, there are many good women in my house (L. 130).

lema Jaba-manzum sawa kuz'ra braḍē tīna, in Jaba all the horses are good (L. 140).

lema Kābula-manzum sawe barē kharāba tīna, in Kābul all the mares are bad (L. 141).

chāna mala thāna-manzum katisi put'ra tīna, how many sons are there in thy father's house? (L. 223).

le parāna kuz'ras zīn myāna thāna-manzum, in my house (is) the saddle of the white horse (L. 226).

le sār gāṇa put'r tsakalān-manzum wā, his eldest son was in the fields (Par. 25).

lema asto-manzum angur tsiya, pade-manzum panā tsiya, put ye a ring on his hand, put ye shoes on his feet (Par. 22).

to swro wāz jango wakta-manzum, thou wast small at the time of fighting (L. 163).

lema-manzum sūrē, the younger from among them (Par. 12).

myāna māla-manzum ki hissa owē, from in the property the share which comes as mine (Par. 12).

pas, after, is used both as a preposition and as a postposition. When used as a preposition, it governs the ablative case, as in *pas diyan-ma*, after beating (L. 178). When used as a postposition, it governs the general oblique case, as in *tsuk^a daze pas*, after a few days (Par. 13).

patī, after, governs the general oblique case, as in :—

lema patī mala tarafe ū, after that he came towards the father (Par. 20).

patīkana, behind, governs the genitive in :—

chāna patīkana kāmik badāna da ē, whose boy comes behind thee? (L. 239).

sama, with, together with, governs the dative in :—

ki tānu dōstāna sama khushālī kere, that I made merry with my friends (Par. 29).

It gives the force of a dative in :—

mē sama (or *masi*) *munāsib*, proper for me (Par. 19, 21).

It seems to mean 'equal to' in :—

tānu mazdūrāno khum mē sama karē, make me equal to thy servants (Par. 19).

tōna, under, probably governs the general oblique case, as in *brichat tōna*, under a tree (L. 230).

waza, under, may be used in the above sentence instead of *tōna* (L. 230).

Nouns Adjective.

Adjectives appear sometimes to change for gender and number, but the available materials are not sufficient for laying down any general rules. All that can now be said is that the termination *e* or *ē* occurs most frequently in the case of adjective agreeing with feminine nouns or with masculine plural nouns. But this is by no means a universal rule. For this reason, it is best to give here simply a list of all the adjectives noted, with the context in which they occur.

odasta, hungry, in *lā brōk odasta gā*, he became very hungry (Par. 14).

braḍa or *breḍa*, good. Used attributively in :—

le breḍa ād^m ti, he is a good man (L. 26).

breḍa jāmā-na anā, bring ye the good garment (Par. 22).

breḍa batṣa, the good calf (Par. 23, 27, 30).

Judging from L. 119-127, when this word is used attributively, it does not change in masculine declension.

For the feminine singular, we have *braḍa strē*, a good woman, and for the feminine plural, we have *myāna thāna-manzum brōk braḍē strē tina*, in my house there are many good women (L. 130).

This word is used predicatively in :—

chāna thān braḍa ti, thy house is good (L. 22).

az surē braḍa ti, today the sun is bright (L. 62).

myāna thāna-ma chāna thān braḍa ti, thy house is better than mine (L. 133, so 134).

We have *braḍe* or *braḍē*, instead of *braḍa*, in the following :—

lā brok braḍe wa, he was very well (Par. 27).

diyan braḍe na ti, it is not good to beat. In both these cases *braḍe* is masculine singular. It is masculine plural in :—

lema Jaba-manzum sawa kuz^{ra} braḍē tīna, in Jaba all the horses are good (L. 140).

lema sawa braḍe tīna, they are all good (L. 161).

brok or *brōk*, much, many. Used attributively in :—

brōk grānī (fem.) *wē*, there was a great famine (Par. 14).

myāna mala lā sūrē thāna-manzum brōk umar langā i, my father is living in that small house for a long time (L. 233).

myāna mal^a brōk muzdurāno wāna, there were many servants of my father (Par. 17).

myāna thāna-manzum brōk braḍē strē tīna, in my house there are many good women (L. 130).

We have *brōke* in :—

az brōke stōre tīna, to-day there are many stars (L. 64).

The word is used adverbially, in the sense of 'very', in :—

lā brōk odasta gā, he became very hungry (Par. 15).

mē brōk gunagar tim, I am very sinful (Par. 21).

lā brok braḍe wa, he was very well (Par. 27).

chāna sanās dante brōk trighna tīna, the teeth of thy dog are very sharp (L. 146).

le adam brok do, beat that man well (L. 236).

bēwukūf, in *te bēwukūf tis*, thou art a fool (L. 157).

dūr, far. Used attributively in :—

lā be gā dūr mulkasi, and he went to a far country (Par. 13).

Predicatively in :—

lā dūr wa mala bīchī, he was far, the father saw him (Par. 20).

le adam dūr wa galiz wakta khum, that man was far away at the time of the theft (L. 164).

gaṇa, great, long, elder, as in :—

ao az gaṇa panda khum gā wāma, I walked a long way today (L. 224).

le sār gaṇa put^r tsakalān-manzum wā, his elder son was in the fields (Par. 25. So 28).

mala gaṇa putrasi jawāb dita, the father gave answer to the elder son (Par. 31).

gar, lost, in :—

le gar gā wa, he had been lost (L. 24. So 32).

hokhyār, clever, in :—

to hokhyār tis, thou art clever (L. 20).

tā tre ād^{ma} hokhyār tiza, you three men are clever (L. 23).

hāzir, present, in :—

mē hāzir gam, I am present (L. 156).

dēzī hāzir bazam, I shall be present (?) today (L. 173).

lē sawa hāzir wāma, they were all present (L. 167).

jaltī, speedy, quick, as in :—

lā jaltī ū, he came quickly (i.e., he ran) (Par. 20).

jaltī bō, go ye quickly (Par. 22).

jinde, living, alive, in :—

kāla jinde gā, now he became alive (Par. 24, 32).

kaza, high, tall, as in :—

lema brijasi le kaza ti, this tower is higher than that (L. 136).

sawa brijan-ma le brij kaza ti, this tower is higher than all towers (L. 137).

lema spazunsi le ad^amas brā kaza ti, that man's brother is taller than his sister (L. 231).

kharāb, bad, attributive, as in :—

kharāb badani, a bad boy (L. 129).

ek kharāb kumār, a bad girl (L. 131).

Predicatively in :—

le ad^ama kharāb tina, those men are bad (L. 29).

lema-ma kram kharāb ti, their business is bad (L. 31).

tao sawa kharābe tiza, you are all bad (L. 160).

lema Kābula-manzum sawe barē kharāba (fem. pl.) *tina*, in Kābul all mares are bad (L. 141).

khushāl, happy, in *urē khushāl gā*, the heart became happy (Par. 32).

loī, red, in *loī zar*, red precious metal, i.e., gold (L. 45).

munāsib, proper, as in :—

mē sama (or *masi*) *munāsib nā ti*, it is not proper for me (Par. 19, 21).

khushālī karan munāsib wa, it was proper to make rejoicing (Par. 32).

parāna, white, as in :—

parāna zar, white precious metal, i.e., silver (L. 46).

le parāna kuz^aras zīn, the saddle of the white horse (L. 226).

sura, *sūrē*, sure, small, younger. Attributively in :—

lema-manzum sūrē put^r mala ditanas, from among them, the younger son said to his father (Par. 12).

tsuk^a daze pas sūrē put^r tānu māl jama kere, after a few days the younger son collected his property (Par. 13).

myāna mala lā sūrē thāna-manzum brōk umar langā ti, my father is living a long time in that small house (L. 233).

le surē (fem.) *myāna dē tē*, this little one is my daughter (L. 36).

Used predicatively in :—

lema thān sura ti, his house is small (L. 28).

mē suro [sic] *wāma lema wakta khum*, at that time I was small (L. 162).

to suro [sic] *wāz jango wakta-manzum*, at the time of fighting thou wast small (L. 163).

It will be observed that in the predicative examples, the final vowel is *a* or *o*, not *ē*.

saw, sawa, all, as in :—

lā saw māl chiz kere, he wasted all his substance (Par. 14).

lema Jaba-manzum sawa kuz'ra braḍē tīna, in Jaba all horses are good (L. 140).

sawa braḍa adaman le khabar dē-o, give the news to all good men (L. 126).

sawa thānān-ma chāna thān braḍa ti, thy house is better than all houses (L. 134).

sawa brijan-ma le brij kaza ti, this tower is higher than all towers (L. 137).

lema Kābula-manzum sawe barē (fem. pl.) *kharāba tīna*, in Kābul all mares are bad (L. 141).

This word is often used to indicate a plural, as in :—

āo sawa gharībāne tīna, we (all) are poor (L. 159).

tao sawa kharābe tīza, you (all) are bad (L. 160).

lema sawa braḍe tīna, they (all) are good (L. 161).

tao sawa bōgha wāma, you (all) were near by (L. 166).

lē sawa hāzir wāma, they (all) were present (L. 167).

trighna, sharp, as in :—

chāna sanās dante brōk trighna tīna, the teeth of thy dog are very sharp (L. 146).

tsuk', a few, as in *tsuk' daze pas*, after a few days (Par. 13).

Pronouns.

The pronoun of the **First Person** appears under the following forms :—

	Sing.	Plur.
Nom.	<i>ao, au, or mē, I.</i>	<i>ao, āo, mēn.</i>
Agent.	<i>mē.</i>	<i>ao.</i>
Gen.	<i>myāna,</i> <i>māsi-da, da mē.</i>	<i>myāna.</i> <i>masī.</i>
Dat.	<i>māsi, (?) mē sama.</i>	...
Obl.	<i>mē.</i>	...

The following are examples of the use of the above forms :—

Singular Nominative.

ao lemaji odasta-ni marā gam, I am dying here of hunger (Par. 17).

ao chāna hukum-ma bāhr nā gim, I went not outside thy command (Par. 29).

ao ditam, I strike (L. 179).

ao az gaṇa panda khum gā wāma, I walked a long way to-day (L. 224).

ki chāna put'r au dēm, that I may be thy son (Par. 19, 21).

chāna khidmat au da kerem, I am doing thy service (Par. 29).

mē tānu māsi bazam, I will go to my father (Par. 18).

mē āsmān be chāna nazar manzum gunagār bēm, I am a sinner in the sight of heaven and of thee (Par. 18. So 21).

mē hāzir gam, I am present (L. 156).

mē suro wāma lema wakta khum, at that time I was small (L. 162).

mē dēma, I am beating (L. 191). *mē ba-dēm*, I shall beat (L. 195).

Agentive.

mē dita wa, I struck (L. 184).

mē le adam diyanasi dita wa, I gave that man for a beating (i.e., to be beaten) (L. 177).

lema ad^amas put^r khum mē brok ditina kere tina, by me many blows have been made on that man's son (L. 228).

Genitive.

wranin khō myāna shpun bē khō, (?) the food of the sheep (is) also the food of me the shepherd. The meaning of this sentence is doubtful (Par. 16).

myāna mī-kana bo, walk before me (L. 238).

This *myāna* is more generally employed as a possessive pronoun. When so used, it does not change for gender, number, or case. Thus:—

le myāna put^r muṛa gā wa, this my son had died (Par. 24).

myāna mala lā surē thāna manzum brōk umar langā ti, my father lives for a long time in that small house (L. 234).

le strē myāna khīna tē, this woman is my wife (L. 53).

le surē myāna dē tē, this little girl is my daughter (L. 56).

myāna mal^a brōk mazdurāno wāna, there were many servants of my father (Par. 17).

az myāna thāna-manzum ek dēn m'ra gā tē, to-day a cow has died in my house (L. 83. So 130, 226).

myāna trōras put^r le myāna spazam manas ti, the son of my uncle is married to my sister (L. 225).

myāna dunsī khat ut ti, a letter has come from my daughter (L. 113).

myāna dun umar, the age of my daughters (L. 116).

Used predicatively, we have:—

myāna māla-manzum ki hissa owē, amongst the property the share which comes (as) mine (Par. 12).

kasa myāna wa, whatever was mine (Par. 31).

Sometimes *myāna* is preceded by the demonstrative pronoun *le*, without affecting the meaning, as in:—

le myāna dē panzi sansar tē, my daughter is fifteen years (old), (L. 111). So *le myāna spazam* given above. But compare *le myāna put^r*, this my son (Par. 24).

Note that in *myāna spazam*, already twice quoted, not only is *myāna* prefixed to the noun, but the pronominal suffix *am* appears also to be added to the end of the noun. This, however is the only example of this pronominal suffix, if it really is such. The whole phrase is *myāna spazam manas ti*, and the final *m* of *spazam* may possibly be explained as a doubling of the following *m* in *manas*, as is the case in *nazaram-manzum* explained on p. 269 *ante*.

Sometimes the Pashto preposition *da*, of, is used to form the genitive of this pronoun. The only examples are in L. 15, where we have *masi-da* or *da mē* given as equivalent to 'of me'.

Dative.

lā masi dē, give that to me (Par. 12).

tē masi tsālī tsindar nā dita, thou didst not give to me a goat's kid (Par. 29).

masi (or *mē-sama*) *munāsib nā ti*, it is not proper for me (Par. 19, 21).

Oblique.

mē-sama munāsib, as above.

da mē, of me, as above.

tē mēkha mē kharē wē, thou wast always with me (Par. 31).

Plural Nominative.

ao dē kām (? *khām*) *khushālī karēm*, let us eat, let us make rejoicing (Par. 23).

pas diyan-ma ao gēma, after beating we went away (L. 178).

āo sawa gharibāne tima, we are all poor (L. 159). Similarly, *āo sawa wāma*, we all were (L. 165); *ao ditama*, we beat (L. 182); *ao ba dēma*, we shall beat (L. 198); *ao gā wāma*, we go (? went) (L. 208).

mēn samo tre ād^{mo} khārasi da bazam, we three men all go to the town (L. 17).

Agentive.

ao mī-kana dita wāma, we struck formerly (L. 188).

Genitive.

The only authorities for *masi* and *myāna*, the genitives plural, are those in L. 18, 19.

I have no information as to the dative and oblique plurals of this pronoun.

The pronoun of the **Second Person** appears under the following forms:—

	Sing.	Plur.
Nom.	<i>tu, to, te, tē</i> , thou.	<i>tu, tao, tā</i> .
Agent.	<i>te, tē</i> .	<i>tā</i> .
Gen.	<i>chāna</i> , (verily thine) <i>chānam</i> , <i>te-ma</i> .	<i>chāna</i> . <i>tā-ma</i> .
Dat.
Obl.	<i>te, tē</i> .	<i>tā</i> .

The following are examples of the use of the above forms:—

Singular Nominative.

tu de gā wāza, thou goest (? wentest) (L. 206).

to hokhyār tis, thou art clever (L. 20).

to suro wāz jango wakta khum, at the time of fighting thou wast small (L. 163).

te bēwukūf tis, thou art foolish (L. 157).

te ditama, thou strikest (L. 182).

te ba dēm, thou wilt strike (L. 197).

tē mēkha mē kharē wē, thou wast ever with me (Par. 31).

Agentive.

te lema dapāra breḍa batsa kukhto, thou slaughteredst for him the good calf (Par. 30).

te dita wa, thou struckest (L. 186).

te le bāna kāmā adamasi achita ti, from whom have you bought that? (L. 240).

tē masi tsālī tsindar nā dita, thou didst not give to me a she-goat's kid (Par. 29).

Genitive.

chāna patī-kāna kāmik badāna da ē, whose boy comes at the back of thee (i. e. behind thee) (L. 239).

This *chāna* is more often employed as a possessive pronoun. When so used, it does not change for gender, number, or case. Thus:—

chāna put^r au dēm, (it is not proper that) I should be thy son (Par. 19, 21).

- chāna brā ũ ti*, thy brother is come (Par. 27).
chāna khidmat au da kerem, I am doing thy service (Par. 29).
chāna lā put'r ō, this thy son came (Par. 30).
chāna māl-maṭa strizī khum chi kere, wasted thy substance on females (Par. 30).
chāna brā muṛa gā wa, thy brother had died (Par. 32).
chāna thān braḍa ti, thy house is good (L. 22).
chāna nām ki ti, what is thy name (L. 220).
chāna mala lī breḍa batṣa kukhto, by thy father the good calf was slaughtered (Par. 27).
chāna sanās dante brōk triḡṇa tīni, the teeth of thy dog are very sharp (L. 146).
chāna kuz'ra umar katēsi ti, how much is the age of thy horse (L. 221) ?
chāna nazar (or *nazaram*)-*manzum gunagār bēm*, in thy sight I am a sinner (Par. 18, 21).
chāna mala thāna-manzum, in thy father's house (L. 223).
ao chāna hukum-ma bāhr nā gim, I did not go outside thy command (Par. 29).
kasa myāna wa, lā chānam ti, whatever was mine, that is thine verily (=Urdū *tērā-hī*) (Par. 31).

The ablative seems also to be used with the force of the genitive, as in *te-ma*, of thee (L. 21), *tā-ma*, of you (L. 24). There are, however, no examples of these forms. See the remarks above (p. 275 *ante*) in connexion with the postposition *ma*.

Plural Nominative.

- tu de gā wāza*, you go (? you went) (L. 209).
tao sawa kharābe tiza, you are all bad (L. 160).
tao sawa bōḡha wāma, you were all near by (L. 166).
tā tre āḍ'ma hokhyār tiza, you three men are clever (L. 23).
tā ditama, you beat (L. 183); *tā ba dēma*, you will beat (Par. 199).

Agentive.

- tā mī-kana dita wa*, formerly you struck (L. 189).

The List of Words gives *chāna* as meaning 'your' as well as 'thy', (L. 25), and (L. 24) gives *tā-ma*, an ablative form, for 'of you', corresponding to the *te-ma* of the singular. But, as in the case of the singular, there are no examples of the use of these forms.

From the above accounts of these two pronouns, we gather that the oblique forms and the direct forms are often confused, one being used instead of the other, and that the singular forms are commonly used as plurals. The true division of the forms seems to be as follows :—

	SING.		PLUR.	
	Direct.	Oblique.	Direct.	Oblique.
First person.	<i>ao, au.</i>	<i>mē.</i>	? <i>ao.</i>	<i>mēn.</i>
Second person.	<i>tu, to.</i>	<i>te, tē.</i>	<i>tao.</i>	<i>tā.</i>

The **Demonstrative Pronoun** is *le*, *lā*, or *lema*, this, that, he. Judging from the available examples, there do not appear to be separate words for 'this' and for 'that', though we might expect that *le* was used for the one, and *lā* for the other. In the examples, *lema* is not used for the nominative singular, and seems to be used only in the

oblique cases of the singular and generally in the plural. *Le* or *lā* is also used where we should employ the definite article, and is also found prefixed to possessive pronouns and to place-names, where we should omit any demonstrative pronoun. The pronoun is used both as a pronoun and as a pronominal adjective, without distinction of form. The following are the forms found in the examples :—

	Singular.	Plural.
Nom.	<i>le, lā, this, that, he.</i>	<i>le, lā, lema.</i>
Agent.	<i>le, lā, le-na.</i>	<i>le, lān.</i>
Acc.	<i>le, lā, lās.</i>	<i>lā.</i>
Gen.	<i>le, (?) le sān, lā, lema, lemo, lemas.</i>	<i>lema-ma.</i>
Dat.	<i>le, lesi, lāsi, lās, le-na, lemas.</i>	...
Obl.	<i>le, lā, lema.</i>	<i>lema.</i>

The following are examples of the use of these forms :—

Singular Nominative.

- urē-manzum le khyāl wa*, in the heart was this thought (Par. 15).
te le bāna kāmā adamasi achita ti, from what man was that (?)thing bought by thee (L. 240)?
le strē myāna khīna tē, this woman is my wife (L. 53).
le kī gā ti, what is this that has happened (Par. 26)?
le breḍa ād^m ti, he is a good man (L. 26).
le gar gā wa, he had been lost (Par. 24).
le bēwukūf ti, he is foolish (L. 158).
le dīta ti, he beats (L. 181) ; *le ba dēm*, he will beat (L. 197) ; *le gā wa*, he goes (P he went) (L. 207).
chāna lā put^r ō, this thy son came (Par. 30).
kasa myāna wa, lā chānam ti, whatever was mine, that is thine verily (Par. 31).
lā bē gā dūr mulkasi, and he went to a far country (Par. 13).
lā brōk odasta gā, he became very hungry (Par. 14).
ek ad^mma lā khare natī gā, he (?) took refuge near a man (Par. 15).
la dūr wa . . . lā jaltī ā, he was distant . . . he came quickly (Par. 20).
lema-ma lā brok braḍa wa, because he was very well (Par. 27).

Agentive.

- le malasi jawāb dīta*, by him answer was given to the father (Par. 29).
le mī-kana dīta wa, formerly he struck (L. 187).
lā māla taksīm kere, by him division of the property was made (Par. 12).
lā saw māl chiz kere, by him all the property was wasted (Par. 14).
lā tānu ōre-manzum arī, by him it was said in his heart (Par. 17).
le-na lāsi arī, by him it was said to him (Par. 27).

Accusative.

- le khat malasi dēm*, I give this letter to a father (L. 103).
le rūpai le adamasi dē, give this rupee to him (L. 234).
le pānu, clothe ye him (Par. 22).
lā masi dē, give that to me (Par. 12).

lās kukhto, slaughter it (Par. 23). Here the dative (like the Hindōstānī *us-kō*) is used as a definite accusative.

Genitive.

le uṛe-manzum le kḥiyāl wa, in his heart this thought was (Par. 16).

le ad'mas brā, the brother of that man (L. 231).

lā azi (fem.) *achhite*, took his mouth, i.e., kissed him (Par. 20).

le sāl gāṇa put'r tsakalān-manzum wā, his elder son was in the fields (Par. 25).

The translation of *le sāl* by 'his' is very doubtful. This is the only passage where the form occurs, and there are no analogies.

lema asto-manzum angur tsiya, put ye a ring on his hand (Par. 22).

lema thān sura ti, his house is small (L. 27).

lema spazunsi le ad'mas brā kaza ti, that man's brother is taller than his sister (L. 231).

lema shisi dowādī rūpai kimat ti, the price of that thing is two and a half rupees (L. 232).

Note that in the two instances in which we have *lema*, that word is, in each case, followed by a word beginning with *s*. It is possible that the final *s* of *lema* is merely a doubling of the *s* that follows, like the *m* in *nazaram*, and that *t* in *brichat*, to which attention is drawn on p. 269 *ante*.

Dative.

le rūpai le adamasi dē, give this rupee to that man (L. 234).

lesi bo aṛam, I will say to him (Par. 18).

lāsi kī nā dila, no one gave to him (Par. 16).

lās pukhlā kere, made conciliation to him (Par. 28). Compare the remarks above about *lās* used as a definite accusative.

le-na lāsi aṛi, by him to him it was said (Par. 27).

putre-na le-na aṛi, by the son to him it was said (Par. 21). Regarding the form *le-na*,—here a dative, and in the preceding passage an agentive,—see the remarks about *na* on p. 271 *ante*.

lema tsīr kere, asked to (i.e., from) him (Par. 26).

Oblique.

le mulke-manzum brōk grānī (fem.) *wē*, in that country there became a great famine (Par. 14). So *le mulke-manzum* in Par. 15.

le pakīrasi ek āna dē, give one anna to the faqīr (L. 84).

lā pōre, after that (Par. 14).

lā sūrē thāna-manzum, in that small house (L. 233).

au lema kursi-ma uthum, I rise from this chair (L. 82).

lema jaisi Kashmīr katēsi dūr ti, how far is Kashmīr from this place (L. 222)?

lema brijasi le kaza ti, this tower is higher than that (L. 136).

lema patī mala tarafe ū, after that he came in the direction of the father (Par. 20).

lema-ma brēḍa jāmā-na anā, bring ye for him the good garment (Par. 22).

lema-ma lā rūpai achhito, take those rupees from him (L. 235).

lema-ma kḥabar gā ti, of (i. e., concerning) him it is said (L. 27).

lema-ma, from this, also = 'because'. Thus, *lema-ma lā brok brade wa*, because he was very well (Par. 27).

te lema dapāra brēḍa baṭsa kukhto, thou for his sake slaughteredst the good calf (Par. 30).

Plural Nominative.

- leād^ama kharāb tīna*, those men are bad (L. 29).
le dītama, they beat (L. 184); *le ba dēma*, they will beat (L. 200).
lē sawa hāzīr wāma, they were all present (L. 167).
lema sawa braḍe tīna, they are all good (L. 161).

Agentive.

- le mī-kana dīta wāma*, formerly they struck (L. 190).
tānu khushālī lān kere, by them their own rejoicing was made, *i. e.*, they made their rejoicing (Par. 24).

Accusative.

- lema-ma lā rūpai achhito*, take those rupees from him (L. 235).

Genitive.

- lema tre bad^ana malasi khabar ut ti*, information has come from the fathers of these three children (L. 109).
lema-ma kram kharāb ti, their business is bad (L. 31). This is doubtful. See the remarks on p. 275 *ante*.

Oblique.

- lema-manzum sūrē put^r mala āitanas*, from among them the younger son said to the father (Par. 12).

The following are examples of the use of this pronoun as a definite article :—

- le pakīrasi ek āna dē*, give one anna to the faqīr (L. 84).
le parāna kuz^ras zīn, the saddle of the white horse (L. 226).
le zīn kuz^ra dāk khum thā, put the saddle on the horse's back (L. 227).
le kila ek banyā-ma achhita ti, I have bought (it) from a shopkeeper of the village (L. 241).
chāna mala lā breḍa batṣa kukhto, thy father slaughtered the good calf (Par. 27).
lā gaṇa put^r ghussā khum gā, the elder son became in anger (Par. 28).

The words *le adam*, that man, are often used to mean simply 'he'. Thus :—

- le adam tānu tsakalānsi prēgī*, he sent (him) to his fields (Par. 15).
le adam dūr wa galiz wakta khum, he was away at the time of theft (L. 164).
mē le adam diyanasi dīta wa, I gave that man (or him) to be beaten (L. 177).
le ādam tāna māl tsarū ti, he is grazing his cattle (L. 229).
le ādam kuz^ra dāka khum spāra gā, he is sitting on a horse's back (L. 230).
le adam brok do, beat him well (L. 236).
le ad^amas brā, his brother (L. 231).
le rūpai le adamasi dē, give that rupee to him (L. 234).
lema ad^amas put^r khum mē brok dītina kere tīna, I have made many stripes on his son (L. 228).
le ād^ama kharāb tīna, they are bad (L. 29).

The following are examples of this pronoun prefixed to a possessive pronoun :—

- le myāna put^r mura gā wa*, this my son had died (Par. 24). Here the demonstrative pronoun has its proper force, but in the following it does not require representation in English :—

- le myāna dē panzī sansar tē*, my daughter is fifteen years (old) (L. 110).

myāna trōras put^r le myāna spazam manas ti, the son of my uncle is married to my sister (L. 225).

Somewhat similarly this pronoun is prefixed to place-names, as in :—

lema Jaba-manzum sawa kuz^ra braḍē tīna, in Jaba all horses are good (L. 140).

lema Kābula-manzum sawe baṛē kharāba tīna, in Kābul all mares are bad (L. 141).

The **Reflexive Possessive Pronoun** is *tānu*, own, which, like the Hindōstānī *apnā*, always refers to the logical subject of the sentence. It does not seem to change for gender, number, or case, unless the form *tāna*, which occurs once (L. 229), is a plural in agreement with a plural noun (*māl*=cattle). The following are examples of its use :—

mē tānu malasi bazam, I will go to my father (Par. 18).

ki tānu dōstāna sama khushālī kere, that I (might have) made rejoicing with my friends (Par. 29).

tānu mazdūrāno khum mē sama karē, make me equal among thy servants (Par. 19).

sure put^r tānu māl jama kere tānu mālas badmāshī khum chi kere,
the younger son collected his property wasted his property
in debauchery (Par. 13).

ek tānu naukaris ga ti, he has gone to one of his servants (Par. 26).

lā tānu ōre-manzum aṛī, he said in his heart (Par. 17).

mala tānu naukarānosi aṛī, the father said to his servants (Par. 22).

le adam tānu tsakalānsi prēgī, that man sent (him) to his fields (Par. 15).

tānu khushālī lān kere, they made their rejoicing (Par. 24).

le adam tāna māl brēkhṭa khāra khum tsarū ti, that man is grazing his cattle on
the top of the hill (L. 229). Here, as above remarked, *tāna* is perhaps
plural, in agreement with *māl*.

The **Relative Pronoun** is *ki*, who, which, as in :—

chāna lā put^r ō, ki chāna māl-maṭā strīzī khum chi kere, this thy son came, who
wasted thy substance on females (Par. 30).

myāna māla-manzum ki hissa owē, amongst the property the share which comes as
mine (Par. 12).

The **Interrogative Pronoun** is *kāma*, who?, the genitive of which is *kāmik*, whose? The neuter is *ki*, what? The following are examples of this pronoun :—

le adam kāma ti, who is that man (L. 92)?

te le bāna kāma adamasi achhita ti, from what man didst thou buy that (?) thing
(L. 240).

chāna patī-kana kāmik badāna da ē, whose boy comes behind thee (L. 239)?

le ki ti, what is this (L. 93)?

chāna nām ki ti, what is thy name (L. 220)?

le kī gā ti, what (is) this (that) has happened (Par. 26)?

ki sawab ti, what cause is it? i.e., why? (L. 94).

The **Indefinite Pronouns** are *kī*, anyone, and *kasa*, whatever. Thus :—

lāsī kī nā dīṭa, anyone did not give to him (Par. 16). Here it will be observed
that *kī* is in the Agentive case.

kasa myāna wa, lā chānam ti, whatever was mine, that is verily thine (Par. 31).

Other **Pronominal Adjectives** are *lētik*, so many; *katēsi*, how much?; and *katisi*, how many? Thus:—

lētik sansaragāna chāna khidmat au da kerem, for so many years I am doing thy service (Par. 29).

chāna kuz'ra umar katēsi, how much is the age of thy horse (L. 221)?

lema jaisi Kashmīr katēsi dūr ti, from this place how much distant is Kashmir (L. 222)?

chāna mala thāna-manzum katisi put'ra tīna, how many sons are there in thy father's house (L. 223)?

CONJUGATION.

Auxiliary Verbs and Verbs Substantive.—In the present tense, the most common verb substantive is *tim*, I am. It is conjugated as follows:—

Sing.	Plur.
1. <i>tim</i> , I am.	<i>tima</i> .
2. <i>tis</i> .	<i>tiza</i> .
3. <i>ti</i> ; fem. <i>tē</i> .	<i>tīna</i> .

Examples of its use are:—

brōk gunagār tim, I am a great sinner (Par. 21). In the corresponding passage in verse 18, we have *bēm* (see below) instead of *tim*.

to hokhyār tis, thou art clever (L. 20).

te bēwukūf tis, thou art a fool (L. 157).

munāsib nā ti, it is not proper (Par. 19, 21).

le breḍa ad'm ti, he is a good man (L. 26).

lema thān sura ti, his house is small (L. 28).

lema-ma kram kharāb ti, their business is bad (L. 31).

kasa myāna wa, lē chānam ti, whatever was mine, that is thine verily (Par. 31).

az surē braḍa ti, to-day the sun is bright (L. 62).

le bad'na myāna putr ti, this child is my son (L. 54).

chāna nām ki ti, what is thy name (L. 220)?

chāna kuz'ra umar katēsi ti, how much is the age of thy horse (L. 221)?

lema jaisi Kashmīr katēsi dūr ti, how far is Kashmir from here (L. 222)?

lemas spazunsi le ad'mas brā kaza ti, his brother is taller than his sister (L. 231).

lemas shisi dowadī rūpai kimat ti, the price of that thing is two rupees and a half (L. 232).

Possession is indicated in:—

le thān malas ti, this house belongs to the father (L. 102).

For the feminine, we have:—

eka strē tē, there is one woman (L. 52).

le strē myāna khāna tē, that woman is my wife (L. 53).

le surē myāna dē tē, this little one (fem.) is my daughter (L. 56).

le myāna dē panzi sansar tē, my daughter is fifteen years (old) (L. 111).

For the plural, we have :—

- āo sawa gharībāna tīma*, we are all poor (L. 159).
tā tre ād^ama hokhyār tīza, you three men are all clever (L. 23).
tao sawa kharābe tīza, you are all bad (L. 160).
le ād^ama kharāb tīna, those men are bad (L. 29).
az brōke stōre tīna, to-day there are many stars (L. 64).
myāna thāna-manzum brōk braḍē strē tīna, in my house there are many good women (L. 130).
lema sawa braḍe tīna, they are all good (L. 161).
chāna mala thāna-manzum katīsī put^ara tīna, how many sons are there in thy father's house (L. 223) ?

The above are all examples of the use of this verb as a verb substantive. It is also commonly used as an auxiliary verb, helping to form the present definite or the perfect tense. Examples of these uses will be found under the head of these tenses.

The corresponding past tense of the verb substantive is conjugated as follows :—

Sing.	Plur.
1. <i>wāma</i> , I was.	<i>wāma</i> .
2. <i>wāz</i> , <i>wē</i> .	<i>wāma</i> .
3. <i>wā</i> (<i>wa</i>) ; fem. <i>wē</i> .	<i>wāna</i> , <i>wāma</i> .

With the above we may compare the Pashtō *wu*, he was. It will be noticed that the form *wāma* may be used for any person of the plural. I suspect that this properly belongs to the first person, and that custom allows it to be used optionally for either of the other two persons. It seems also to be likely that the *wāz* of the second person singular, is really a second person plural (compare *tīza*, you are, of the present), and that the original plural forms are therefore (1) *wāma*, (2) *wāz* (or *wāza*), and (3) *wāna*. This would bring the conjugation of this tense into line with the present. It is quite common in the languages of this part of the world for the second person singular to be confounded with the second person plural. The following are examples of this tense used as a verb substantive :—

- me suro wāma lema wakta khum*, at that time I was small (L. 162).
to suro wāz jango wakta-manzum, at the time of fighting thou wast small (L. 163).
tē mēkha mē kharē wē, thou wast ever with me (Par. 31).
le adām dūr wa galiz wakta khum, that man was away at the time of theft (L. 164). Similarly Par. 20.
le uṛe-manzum le kkiyāl wa, this thought was in his heart (Par. 16).
le sār gāṇa put^ar tsakalān-manzum wā, his elder son was in the fields (Par. 25).
lema-mā lā brok braḍe wa, because he was very well (Par. 27).
andarun gāwa uṛe na wā, the heart was not for going (*i.e.*, he did not wish to go) inside (Par. 28).
kasa myāna wa, lā chānam tī, whatever was mine, that is thine verily (Par. 31).
khushālī karan munāsib wa, it was proper to make rejoicing (Par. 32).
le mulke-manzum brōk grānī wē, there was (*i.e.*, became) a great famine (fem.) in that land (Par. 14).

āo sawa wāma, we all were (L. 165).

tao sawa bōgha wāma, you were all near by (L. 166).

ek ad^omas do put^ora wāna, of a certain man there were two sons (Par. 11).

myāna mala brōk mazdurāno wāna, of my father there were many servants (Par. 17).

le sawa hāzir wāma, they were all present (L. 167).

According to L. 202, 'I am beaten' is translated by *mē dita wāma*. Perhaps this really means 'I was beaten'.

The above are all examples of the use of this tense as a verb substantive. It is also freely used as an auxiliary verb. See below.

There is in Paṣtō another verb substantive, *dai*, he is, which appears in Tirāhī under the form *dē* (*de*) or *da*. It is almost always employed as an auxiliary verb forming the present tense, and will be fully considered under that head. In Par. 19 and 21, however, there is a word *dēm*, which seems to be the first person singular of this verb, and to mean 'I may be', being distinct from *dēm*, I give, or I beat. The words are the same in both passages. They are *munāsib nā ti ki chāna put^or au dēm*, it is not proper that I may be thy son.

The irregular verb *bo-*, go (*bazam*, I go; *gā*, went), is frequently used as a verb substantive. It is fully discussed under the head of the Active Verb. Here I may quote the one example available of its use in the first person singular present:—

chāna nazar-manzum gunahgār bēm, I am a sinner in thy sight (Par. 18). In the corresponding passage in verse 21, *tīm* is used in place of *bēm*. The two words are therefore convertible in meaning.

Active Verb. Verbal Nouns.—There is a verbal noun ending in *n*. Thus:—

khushālī karan munāsib wa, it was proper to do rejoicing (Par. 32).

diyan braḍe na ti, it is not good to beat (L. 176).

As examples of oblique cases singular of this verbal noun, we have:—

mē le adam diyanasi dita wa, I gave that man for a beating (*i.e.*, to be beaten) (L. 177).

pas diyan-ma ao gēma, after beating we went away (L. 178).

For the plural, we have:—

mē brok dītina kere tina, many beatings were made by me (*i.e.*, I gave many stripes) (L. 228). Another oblique verbal noun, forming an infinitive of purpose, ends in *ai*, as in *prēgī wrani tsarai*, sent him to graze sheep (Par. 15). In Par. 28, *andarun gāwa ure na wā*, *gāwa* appears to be used as a kind of verbal noun or infinitive, 'his heart was not for going (*i.e.*, he did not wish to go) inside'.

Imperative.—The second person singular of the Imperative may have the form of the bare root, as in:—

lā masi dē, give that to me (Par. 12).

le pakīrasi ek āna dē, give one anna to the faqīr (L. 84).

braḍa adamasi le khat dē, give this letter to a good man (L. 121).

le rūpai le adamasi dē, give this rupee to him (L. 234).

bo, be! (L. 168).

jaltī bō, go quickly (Par. 22). This perhaps is a plural.

myāna mī-kana bō, go (i.e., walk) before me (L. 235).

le zīn kūz'ra dāk khum thā, put the saddle on the horse's back (L. 227).

It often ends in *a*, as in *utha*, stand up (L. 82); *mira*, die (L. 84); *giya*, run (S5).

So:—

kui-ma uva prēla, draw water from the well (L. 237).

Sometimes it ends in *o*, as in:—

lema-ma lā rūpai achkito, take those rupees from him (L. 235).

bīcho, behold! (Par. 29).

le adam brok do, beat him well (L. 236).

sawa braḍa adaman le khabar dē-o, give this news to all good men (L. 126).

In one instance it ends in *e*, viz., in:—

dāma khum tare, bind with a rope (L. 236).

In the forms *ēza*, come (L. 80); *diz* (L. 81) or *daz* (L. 175), give, beat; and *bēza*, sit (L. 79) the letter *z* forms part of the verbal base, and is not a part of the personal termination. This will be explained under the head of the present tense.

The second person plural appears generally to end in *a* or *ā*, as in:—

breḍa jāmā-na anā, bring ye the good coat (Par. 22).

lema asto-manzum angur tsiya, pade-manzum panā tsiya, put ye a ring on his hand, put ye shoes on his feet (Par. 22).

But sometimes we have *u* or *o*, as in:—

le pānu, clothe ye him (Par. 22).

ek breḍa batṣa ānines, lās kukhto, bring ye for him a good calf, slaughter ye it (Par. 23). In *ānines*, in this sentence, we have two pronominal suffixes, viz. *-in*, it (accusative), and *-es*, for him, so that the full word *ānines* means 'bring-ye-it-for-him.'

It will be observed that the above terminations are also used in the singular. Indeed, in some cases it is difficult to decide whether the word is singular or plural. This is entirely in accord with the declension of substantives (*ante*, p. 272), in which little heed is paid to the distinction of number, so long as this is plain from the context.

Present.—As in the other Dardic languages, and as in the Ghalchah languages, the present tense is also used for the future, though there are at the same time special forms for the latter tense. If present or future time has to be emphasized, this is done by prefixing the verb substantive *dē* or *da*, he is, for the present, and *ba* (as in Paṣtō) for the future. This, however, is not always done. The forms given for the present in the List of Words and Sentences are as follows:—

Sing.	Plur
1. <i>ditam</i> .	<i>ditama</i> .
2. <i>ditama</i> .	<i>ditama</i> .
3. <i>dita ti</i> .	<i>ditama</i> .

I doubt, however, if these are really present forms. They look to me more like forms of the past (or, in the third person singular, of the perfect) tense of the root *dē*, beat, of which the past participle is *dita*. Sir Aurel Stein's informant was quite illiterate,

and Sir Aurel Stein tells me himself that he had difficulties with him in regard to the isolated tense forms, so that it is permissible to assume that the informant could not be prevented from misunderstanding the forms put to him for translation into his own language. Before leaving the above paradigm attention may be called to the fact that all the three persons of the plural are the same in form. We have observed the same state of affairs in the *past* tense of the verb substantive.

The following forms of the present occur elsewhere :—

au az thānāsī ēma, I come to the house to-day (L. 80).

au lema kursi-ma uthum, I stand up from this chair (L. 82).

mē āsmān be chāna nazar-manzum gunagār bēm, I am a sinner in heaven's and thy sight (Par. 18).

bēzum, I sit (L. 79).

munāsib nā ti ki chāna put'r au dēm, it is not proper that I may be thy son (Par. 19).

le khat malasi dēm, I give this letter to a father (L. 103).

dēm, I beat (L. 82); *dēma*, I am beating (L. 191). It is evident that the illiterate informant was unable to distinguish between a present and a present definite.

ki hissa owē, the share which comes (Par. 12).

So far we have examples of the simple present. The following are examples in which present time is defined with the help of *dē* (*de*) or *da* :—

chāna patī-kana kāmik badāna da ē, whose boy comes behind you (L. 239) ?

ao dē kām (? *khām*) *khushalī karēm*, let us eat, let us make rejoicing (Par. 23).

Here we have the present used as a present subjunctive or imperative.

lētik sansaragāna chāna khidmat au da karēm, for so many years I am doing thy service (Par. 29).

au da bazam, I go (L. 77).

mēn samo tre ād'mo khārasi da bazam, we three men all go to town (L. 17).

The last two examples draw attention to the fact that, at least in the case of some verbs, a present base is formed by the addition of the letter *z*, and that the same base is also used for the imperative. Thus :—

From the root *bo-*, become, be, go, we have *baz-am*, as above.

From the root *bē-*, sit, we have *bēz-um*, I sit (L. 79).

From the root *ē-*, come, we have *ēz-a*, come thou; and also *ēma*, I come (L. 80).

From the root *dē-*, give, beat, we have *diz* (L. 81) or *daz* (L. 175), beat thou, and also *dēm*, I beat (L. 81).

If we remember that the letters *z* and *j* are often interchanged, we shall recognize this same verbal present base in *Shinā*, in which language also the present and the future have the same form, and in which also the root *bu-* means both 'become' and 'go'. In *Shinā* the present-future of this verb runs as follows :—

Sing.	Plur.
1. <i>bujam</i> , I go.	<i>bujōn</i> .
2. <i>bujē</i> .	<i>bujyāt</i> .
3. <i>bujē</i> .	<i>bujèn</i> .

From the above examples, we get the following forms of the Tirāhī present :—

Sing.	Plur.
1. <i>ēma</i> , I come; <i>dēma</i> , I give, I beat. <i>uthum</i> , I stand up; <i>bēm</i> , I become, I go; <i>bēzum</i> , I sit; <i>dēm</i> , I give, I beat. <i>da kerem</i> , I do, <i>da bazam</i> , I go.	<i>dē kām</i> (? <i>khām</i>), let us eat; <i>dē karēm</i> , let us make; <i>da bazam</i> , we go.
2.
3. <i>owē</i> , he comes; <i>da ē</i> , he comes.	...

It will be observed that, although this paradigm is very incomplete, the forms are mutually very consistent, and that they differ widely from those given in the paradigm taken from the List of Words and Sentences. Perhaps the forms *ēma* and *dēma*, which end in *a*, are really plurals, and the forms *dē kām*, *dē karēm*, and *da bazam*, which do not end in *a*, are really singulars.

Present Definite.—The Present Definite is formed with the aid of the verb substantive. The following examples occur, but only one is certain :—

myāna mala lā sūrē thāna-manzum brok umar langā ti, my father is living for a long time in that small house (L. 233). Here possibly we should read *lan gā ti*, in which *gā ti* is a perfect, meaning 'has been'.

myāna trōras put^r le myāna spazam manas ti, the son of my uncle is married to my sister (L. 225). This also is very doubtful.

le ādam tāna māl tsarū ti, that man is grazing his cattle (L. 229).

As explained above, the form *dita ti* (L. 181), though given as a present, is probably a perfect.

Future.—As already explained, the future is the same in form as the present, although, when emphasis is laid on the futurity, the syllable *ba* or *bo* is prefixed, as in Paṣhtō. The List of Words (195-200) gives the following paradigm :—

Sing.	Plur.
1. <i>ba dēm</i> .	<i>ba dēma</i> .
2. <i>ba dēm</i> .	<i>ba dēma</i> .
3. <i>ba dēm</i> .	<i>ba dēma</i> .

It will be observed that in the above no distinction of person exists. It is probable that this is only an instance of the carelessness already observed in the case of the past of the verb substantive and of the present. It is probable,—indeed, I may say that it is certain,—that any other form of the present may also be used preceded by *ba*. The following examples of this tense are found elsewhere :—

mēn tānu malasi bazam, lesi bo aṛam, I will go to my father, I will say to him (Par. 18). Here there is no prefixed *ba* to *bazam*, but there is *bo* prefixed to *aṛam*.

dēzī hāzīr bazum, (?) today I shall be present (L. 173). The translation of *dēzī* in this sentence by 'today' is a mere guess. Here again the *ba* is not prefixed.

Past.—As in other Dardic languages, the past tense is formed from the past participle, to which pronominal suffixes may or may not be added. It must be considered under two aspects, *viz.*, (a) the past tense of intransitive verbs, and (b) the past tense of transitive verbs.

(a) *Intransitive Verbs*.—The past participle of the verb *bo-*, go, is *gā*, gone. When used as a past tense, *gā* means 'he went', but also, as in other Dardic languages, is used to mean 'he became', and hence 'he is'.

The only other intransitive verb occurring in the Parable is the verb *ē-*, come, of which the past participle is *ū* or *ō*.

The following are examples of the use of these two past participles as past tenses :—

ao marā gam, I went (or became) dead, I am dead (Par. 17).

mē kāzir gam, I am present (L. 156).

ao chāna hukum-ma bāhr nā gim, I did not go outside thy order (Par. 29).

From these examples we gather that for 'I went' we may have either *gam* or *gim*. The vowel is probably an indeterminate sound like the *fatha-ě-afghānī* of Paṣhtō.

For the third person singular, we have :—

lā bē gā dūr mulkasi, and he went to a far country (Par. 13).

lā brōk odasta gā, he became very hungry (Par. 14).

lē gaṇa put^r ghussā khum gā, the elder son went on anger (*i. e.*, he became angry) (Par. 28).

kāla jinda gā, now he became alive (Par. 24, 32).

urē khushāl gā, the heart became joyful (Par. 32).

le ādam kuz^rā dāka khum spāra ga, he is riding on a horse's back (L. 230).

For *ū* or *ō* we have :—

lema patī mala tarafe ū, after that he came towards the father (Par. 20).

lā jaltī ū, he came quickly (Par. 20).

kāla ū, he is now come (Par. 24).

khā thānasi bōgha ō, gīdān naghāra domāma āwāz ū, when he came near the house, the sound of singing, music, (and) drum came (Par. 25).

chāna lā put^r ō, this thy son came (Par. 30).

For the first person plural, we have :—

pas diyan-ma ao gēma, after beating (him) we went away (L. 178).

(b) *Transitive Verbs*.—As usual, these are construed as passives, with the subject in the Agentive case. Thus :—

mē brok ditina kere tīna, by me many blows have been made (*i. e.*, I struck many blows) (L. 228). This is really an example of the perfect, but is given here as a specimen with a plural object.

kī tānu dōstāna sama khushālī kere, that (I might) have made rejoicing with my friends (Par. 29).

tē masī tsālī tsīndar nā dīta, thou didst not give to me a goat's kid (Par. 29).

te lema dapūra breḍa batāa kukhto, by thee, for his sake, the good calf was slaughtered (Par. 30).

lā azī (fem.) *achhite*, his mouth was taken (*i.e.* (he) kissed him) (Par. 20).

arī, he said (Par. 17, 22).

putre-na le-na arī, the son said to him (Par. 21).

le-na lāsi arī, he said to him (Par. 27).

lā dūr wa, mala bīchī, he was distant, the father saw (him) (Par. 20).

lāsi kī nā dīta, no one gave to him (Par. 16).

le malasi jawāb dīta, he gave answer to the father (Par. 29).

chāna mala lā breḍa batṣa kukhito, thy father slaughtered the good calf (Par. 27).

lā māla taksīm kere, he made division of the property (Par. 12).

sure put^r tānu mālas jama kere, the younger son collected his property (Par. 13).

lā tānu mālas badmāshī khum chi (or *chiz*) *kere*, he wasted his property in riotous living (Par. 13, 14, 30).

mala rām kere, the father made compassion (Par. 20).

lemas tsīr kere, (he) made enquiry from him (Par. 26).

le adam prēgī wranī tsarai, that man sent (him) to feed sheep (Par. 15).

tānu khushālī lān kere, by them their rejoicing was made (Par. 24).

I am unable to explain with certainty the phrase *sūrē put^r mala ditanas*, the younger son said to the father (Par. 12). The word *dita* usually means 'given', but, assuming that it can also mean 'addressed', judging from the analogy of other Dardic languages, we may perhaps explain *ditanas* as *dita-n-as*, in which *-n-* is a pronominal suffix meaning 'by him', and *-as* as a suffix meaning 'he'. The whole would then be literally 'by the younger son the father was-addressed-by-him-he, which is quite a common idiom in, for instance, Kāshmīrī. We may compare with this word *ānines*, which is similarly analysed on p. 290.

Perfect.—A perfect is formed by adding the verb substantive *tim*, etc., to the past participle. Thus :—

lema ad^mas put^r khum mē brok ditina kere tina, by me many stripes have been made on that man's son (L. 228).

le kila ek banyā-ma achhita ti, (by me) (it) was bought from a shopkeeper of the village (L. 241).

te le bāna kāma adamasi achhita ti, from whom has that thing been bought by thee (L. 240)?

chāna brā ũ ti, thy brother has come (Par. 27).

In this it will be observed that the word for 'come' is written *ũ*, with a short mark over the *u*. The same sound is apparently represented elsewhere, by doubling the initial *t* of *ti*, and writing *ut ti*, as has occurred in *nazaram-manzum* and *brichat-tōna* as pointed out on p. 269 *ante*. Thus :—

lema tre badⁿa malasi khahar ut ti, information has come from the fathers of these three children (L. 109).

nyāna dunsī khat ut ti, news has come from my daughter (L. 113).

braḍa adama-ma khahar ut ti, news has come from a good man (L. 122). So L.

127.

The perfect of *bo-*, go, is *gā ti*, as in :—

ek tānu naukaris ga ti, he has gone to one of his servants (Par. 26).

The perfect *gā ti*, he has gone, is also used to mean 'it has become', i.e., 'it is happening'. Thus:—

le kī gā ti, what is happening (Par. 26) ?

lema-ma khabar gā ti, of him news is happening, i.e., of him it is said (L. 27).

In the following *gā tē* (fem.) is used as part of an intensive compound verb:—

az myāna thāna-manzum ek dēn m'ra gā tē, to-day a cow has died in my house (L. 83).

Pluperfect.—Similarly a Pluperfect is formed by adding *wā*, the past tense of the verb substantive. In the List of Words (205-209) *gā wa*, etc., are shown as presents, but this is probably a mistake of the informant. Certain examples of this pluperfect are:—

ao az gāna panda khum gā wāma, I went a long way to-day (L. 224).

le myāna put'r mura gā wa . . . le gar gā wa, this my son had died . . . he had become lost (Par. 24. So 32).

The forms given in the List of Words 295-209 are:—

Sing.	Plur.
1. <i>mē gā wāmā.</i>	<i>ao gā wāma.</i>
2. <i>tu de gā wāza.</i>	<i>tu de gā wāza.</i>
3. <i>le gā wa.</i>	...

For the second person of both numbers, the List gives *tu de gā wāza*, and perhaps, in these cases, the pluperfect has been converted into a present by the prefixing of *de*, a word which we have seen is in other cases employed to form the present tense.

Passive.—The only example of the Passive voice is *mē dita wāma*, I am beaten (L. 202).

DARDIO FAMILY.

TIRĀHĪ.

(Sir Aurel Stein, K.C.I.E., 1922.).

11. Ek ad^amas do put^ra wāna. 12. Lema-manzum sūrē
 One of-man two sons were. Them-among by-little
 put^r mala ditanas, 'ai mala, myāna māla-manzum
 son father was-addressed-by-him-he, 'O father, my property-in
 ki hissa owē, lā masi dē.' Lā māla taksīm
 what share comes, that to-me give.' By-him of-property division
 kere. 13. Tsuk^a daze pas sūrē put^r tānu māl
 was-made. Few days after by-little son his-own property
 jama kere. Lā bē gā dūr mulkasi, tānu
 collected was-made. He and went to-a-far to-country, his-own
 mālas badmāshī khum chi kere (k^r). 14. Lā
 his-property debauchery on expenditure was-made. That
 pōre lā saw māl chiz kere, le
 (?)after by-him all property expended was-made, that
 mulke-manzum brōk grānī wē. Lā brōk odasta gā.
 country-in great famine was. He very hungry went.
 15. Le mulk^a-manzum ek ad^ama lā khare nati-gā. Le
 That country-in one man he near (? took-refuge). By-that
 adam tānu tsakalānsi prēgī wrani tsarai. 16. Le
 man to-his-own fields he-was-sent sheep for-grazing. His
 ure-manzum le khiyāl wa ki 'wranin khō myāna shpūn
 heart-in this thought was that 'of-sheep (?) food of-me (?) shepherd
 bē khō;' lāsi ki nā dita. 17. Lā tānu
 also (?) food;' to-him by-any-one not was-given. By-him his-own
 ore-manzum aī, 'myāna mal^a brōk mazdurāno wāna, grē re
 heart-in it-was-said, 'of-my father many servants were, ? ?
 ditana, ao lemaji odasta-ni marā gam. 18. Mē tānu
 (?)were-given, I here hunger-by dead went. I to-my-own
 malasi bazam, lesi bo-aṛam, "ai mala, mē āsmān be chāna
 father will-go, to-him I-will-say, "O father, I of-heaven and thy
 nazar-manzum gunagār bēm. 19. Kāla mē sama munāsib nā ti
 sight-in sinner am. Now me for proper not is
 ki chāna put^r au dēm. Tānu mazdūrāno khum mē sama
 that thy son I may-be. Thine-own servants amonge m like
 karē"'. 20. Lema patī mala tarafe ū. Lā dūr wa
 make"'. That after in-father's direction he-came. He far was

mala bīchī, mala rām kere, lā jaltī ū,
by-the-father he-was-seen, by-the-father pity was-made, he quickly came,
 asta wrinde(urinde), lā azī achhite. 21. Putre-na le-na
hand (?)grasped, his month was-taken. The-son-by him-to

aṛī, 'ai mala, mē āsmān be chāna nazaram-manzum brōk
it-was-said, 'O father, I of-heaven and thy sight-in much
 gunagār tim, masi munāsib nā ti ki chāna put'r au dēm.'
sinner am, for-me proper not is that thy son I may-be.'

22. Mala tānu naukarānosi aṛī, 'jaltī bō,
By-the-father to-his-own servants it-was-said, 'quickly go,
 lema-ma braḍa jāmā-na anā, le pānu; lema asto-manzum
him-for the-good garment bring-ye, him clothe; his hand-on
 angur tsiya, pade-manzum panā tsiya. 23. Ek breḍa batsa
ring put-ye-on, feet-on shoes put-ye-on. A good calf

ānines, lās kukhto, ao dē-kām (? khām) khushālī karēm.
bring-ye-it-for-him, it slaughter, we may-eat rejoicing may-make.

24. Le myāna put'r mura gā wa, kāla jinde gā; le gar gā
This my son dead gone was, now alive went; he lost gone
 wa, kāla ū. Tānu khushālī lān kere.
was, now came. Their-own rejoicing by-them was-made.

25. Le-sān gaṇa put'r tsakalān-manzum wā. Khā thānasi bōgha
(?) His big son fields-in was. When to-house near

ō, gidān naghāra domāma āwāz ū. 26. Ek tānu
he-came, of-singing of-music of-drums sound came. To-one his-own

naukaris ga ti lemas tsir kere, 'le kī gā ti ?'
to-servant gone he-is to-him enquiry was-made, 'this what gone is?'

27. Le-na lāsi aṛī, 'chāna brā ũ-ti, chāna mala lā
By-him to-him it-was-said, 'thy brother come-is, by-thy father the

breḍa batsa kukhto, lema-ma lā brok braḍe wa. 28. Lā gaṇa
good calf was-slaughtered, that-for he much good was. The big

put'r ghussā khum gā, andarun gāwa ure na wā. Le malas
son anger on went, within to-go heart not was. The his-father

gā, lās pukhlā kere. 29. Le malasi jawāb dita,
went, to-him conciliation was-made. By-him to-father answer was-given,

'bīcho, lētik sansaragāna chāna khidmat au da-kerem, ao chāna
'see, so-many years thy service I am-doing, I thy

hukum-ma bāhr nā gim; magar tē masi tsālī tsindar nā
order-from outside not went; but by-thee to-me she-goat's kid not

dita, ki tānu dōstāna sama khushālī kere. 30. Chāna lā
was-given, that my-own friends with rejoicing was-made. Thy this

put^r ō, ki chāna māl-matā strīzī khum chi kere,
 son came, by-whom thy goods-chattels females on expended was-made,
 te lema dapāra breḍa hatsa kukhto. 31. Mala gaṇa
 by-thee him for the-good calf was-slaughtered. By-the-father to-the-big
 putrasi jawāb dita, 'ai put^ra, tē mēkha mē kharē wē; kasa
 to-son answer was-given, 'O son; thou always me near art; whatever
 myāna wā, lā chānam ti; 32. lēkin khushālī karan munāsib wa,
 mine was, that thine-verily is; but rejoicing to-make proper was,
 urē khushāl gā; chāna brā muṛa gā wa, kāla jinde gā;
 the-heart happy went; thy brother dead gone was, now alive went;
 gar gā wā, kāla ō.
 lost gone was, now came.'

STANDARD LIST OF WORDS AND SENTENCES IN THE TIRĀHĪ LANGUAGE.

English.	Tirāhī.	English.	Tirāhī.
1. One	ek.	23. You	tā [tā tre ād ^a ma hokhyār tiza.]
2. Two	dō.	24. Of you	tā-ma.
3. Three	tre.	25. Your	chāna.
4. Four	tsawor.	26. He	le [le breḍa ād ^a m ti, <i>he is a good man.</i>]
5. Five	pants.	27. Of him	lema-ma [lema-ma khabar gā ti, <i>of him it is said.</i>]
6. Six	kho.	28. His	lemo [lemo thān sura ti, <i>his house is small.</i>]
7. Seven	sat.	29. They	le [le ād ^a ma kharāb tina.]
8. Eight	akht.	30. Of them	lema-ma.
9. Nine	nab.	31. Their	lema-ma [lema-ma kram kharāb ti, <i>their business is bad.</i>]
10. Ten	dah [11=eko, 12=bo, 13=tro, 14=tsauda, 15=panzi, 16=khoḷa, 17=satāra, 18=atāra, 19=kune.]	32. Hand	ast.
11. Twenty	biau [30=biau-dah, 31=biau-eko, <i>and so on</i> ; 40=do-bē, 41=do-biau-ek, <i>and so on.</i>]	33. Foot	padi.
12. Fifty	da-biau-dah [51=da-biau-eko, 52=da-biau-bo, <i>and so on</i> ; 60=tre-bē, 70=tre-biau-dah, 80=tsawor-bē, 90=tsawor-biau-dah.]	34. Nose	nas.
13. Hundred	panz-bē.	35. Eye	acheche.
14. I	au.	36. Mouth	azi.
15. Of me	masi-da, da mē.	37. Tooth	ḍant.
16. Mine	myāna.	38. Ear	kan ^a .
17. We	mēn [mēn samo tre ād ^a mo kharasi da bazam, <i>we thres men all go to town.</i>]	39. Hair	bāla.
18. Of us	masī.	40. Head	khār.
19. Our	myāna.	41. Tongue	jub.
20. Thou	to [to hokhyār tis.]	42. Belly	dama.
21. Of thee	te-ma.	43. Back	dāk.
22. Thine	chāna [chāna thān braḍa ti, <i>thy house is good.</i>]	44. Iron	tsimbar.

English.	Tirāhī.	English.	Tirāhī.
45. Gold . . .	loi zar.	71. Cat . . .	pishē.
46. Silver . . .	parana zar.	72. Cock . . .	tsanzuwā.
47. Father . . .	mal ^a .	73. Duck . . .	murghāwī.
48. Mother . . .	mā.	74. Ass . . .	kar.
49. Brother . . .	brā.	75. Camel . . .	ūkh [<i>plural ukhāna.</i>]
50. Sister . . .	spaz.	76. Bird . . .	margh [<i>plural marghāna.</i>]
51. Man . . .	adam.	77. Go . . .	bo [au da bazam, <i>I am going.</i>]
52. Woman . . .	strē [eka strē tē, <i>there is one woman.</i>]	78. Eat . . .	kha.
53. Wife . . .	khina [le strē myāna khina tē, <i>this woman is my wife.</i>]	79. Sit . . .	bēza [bēzum, <i>I sit.</i>]
54. Child . . .	bad ^a na [le bad ^a na myāna putr ti.]	80. Come . . .	ēza [au az thānasi ēma, <i>I come to the house today.</i>]
55. Son . . .	putr.	81. Beat . . .	diz [dēm, <i>I beat.</i>]
56. Daughter . . .	dē, kumār [le surē myāna dē tē, <i>this little one is my daughter.</i>]	82. Stand . . .	utha [au lema kursi-ma. uthum, <i>I stand up from this chair.</i>]
57. Slave . . .	ghulām.	83. Die . . .	mira [az myāna thāna-manzum ek dēn m'ra gā. tē, <i>today a cow died in my house.</i>]
58. Cultivator . . .	zemindār.	84. Give . . .	dē [le pakirasi ek āna dē, <i>give one anna to the faqīr.</i>]
59. Shepherd . . .	shpūn ; pādawān, <i>herdsman.</i>	85. Run . . .	giya.
60. God . . .	Khudāi.	86. Up . . .	kaza.
61. Devil . . .	Shaitān.	87. Near . . .	bōkh (?)
62. Sun . . .	surf [az surē braḍa ti, <i>today the sun is bright.</i>]	88. Down . . .	waza.
63. Moon . . .	spoghmai.	89. Far . . .	dūr.
64. Star . . .	stōre [az brōke stōre tina, <i>today there are many stars.</i>]	90. Before . . .	mfikana.
65. Fire . . .	nār.	91. Behind . . .	patfikana.
66. Water . . .	uwā.	92. Who ? . . .	kāma [le ādam kāma ti ?]
67. House . . .	thān.	93. What ? . . .	ki [le ki ti ?]
68. Horse . . .	kuz ^a ra.	94. Why ? . . .	ki sawab ti ?
69. Cow . . .	dēn.	95. And . . .	bē.
70. Dog . . .	sanā.	96. But . . .	tsuk-zara.

English.	Tirāhī.	English.	Tirāhī.
97. If	119. A good man . . .	braḍa adam.
98. Yes	120. Of a good man . .	braḍa adamas [braḍa adamas thān bōgha ti, <i>the house of a good man is near.</i>]
99. No.	na.	121. To a good man . .	braḍa adamasi [braḍa adamasi le khat dō.]
100. Alas	122. From a good man .	braḍa adama-ma [braḍa adama-ma khabar ut ti <i>news has come from a good man.</i>]
101. A father	mala.	123. Two good men . .	dō braḍa adama.
102. Of a father . . .	malas [le thān malas ti.]	124. Good men	braḍa adama [braḍa adama lema khār-manzum brōk tīna, <i>there are many good men in this town.</i>]
103. To a father . . .	malasi [le khat malasi dēm, <i>I give this letter to the father.</i>]	125. Of good men . . .	braḍa adaman [braḍa ada- man thān-sūra tīna, <i>the houses of the good men are small.</i>]
104. From a father . .	mala-ma.	126. To good men . . .	braḍa adaman [sawa braḍa adaman le khabar dō-o, <i>give the news to all good men.</i>]
105. Two fathers . . .	do mala [do mala tīna.]	127. From good men . .	braḍa adamansi [braḍa adamansi khabar ut ti.]
106. Fathers	mala.	128. A good woman . .	braḍa strē.
107. Of fathers	māla.	129. A bad boy	khārāb badavi.
108. To fathers	mālasi.	130. Good women	braḍē strē [myāna thāna- manzum brōk braḍē strē tīna.]
109. From fathers . . .	malasi [lema tre bad-na malasi khabar ut ti, <i>in- formation has come from the fathers of these three children.</i>]	131. A bad girl	ek khārāb kumār.
110. A daughter	dē.	132. Good	braḍa.
111. Of a daughter . . .	dē [le myāna dē panzi sansar tē, <i>the age of my daughter is fifteen years.</i>]	133. Better	braḍa [myāna thāna-ma chāna thān braḍa ti.]
112. To a daughter . . .	dēsi.	134. Best	braḍa [sawa thānān-ma chāna thān braḍa ti.]
113. From a daughter . .	dunsi [myāna dunsi khat ut ti, <i>from my daughter news has come.</i>]	135. High	kaza.
114. Two daughters . . .	[dō] dē.	136. Higher	kaza [lema brijasi le kaza ti, <i>this tower is higher than that.</i>]
115. Daughters	[tre] dē.	137. Highest	kaza [sawa brijan-ma le brij kaza ti, <i>of all towers that is the highest.</i>]
116. Of daughters . . .	dun [myāna dun umar, <i>the age of my daughters.</i>]	138. A horse	kuz ^{ra} .
117. To daughters . . .	dunsi.	139. A mare	baḍē.
118. From daughters . .	dunsi.	140. Horses	kuz ^{ra} [lema Jaba-manzum sawa kuz ^{ra} braḍē tīna, <i>in Jaba all horses are good.</i>]

English.	Tirāhī.	English.	Tirāhī.
141. Mares . . .	barē [lema Kābula-manzum sawe barē kharāba tina.]	166. You were . . .	tao [sawa bōgha] wāma, <i>you were all near by.</i>
142. A bull . . .	gō.	167. They were . . .	le [sawa hāzir] wāma.
143. A cow . . .	dēn.	168. Be . . .	bo.
144. Bulls . . .	[brōk] gō, [many] bulls.	169. To be
145. Cows . . .	[brōk] dēn, [many] cows.	170. Being
146. A dog . . .	sanā [chāna sanās dante brōk trighna tina, <i>the teeth of your dog are very sharp.</i>]	171. Having been
147. A bitch . . .	strīza sanā.	172. I may be . . .	bazam.
148. Dogs . . .	sanā [sanā brōk tina.]	173. I shall be . . .	bazum [dōzi hāzir bazum, (?) <i>today I shall be present.</i>]
149. Bitches . . .	strīza sanā [kukri, <i>pups.</i>]	174. I should be . . .	[?] bazum.
150. A he goat . . .	uz.	175. Beat . . .	daz.
151. A female goat . . .	tsāli [tsāinda, <i>a kid.</i>]	176. To beat . . .	diyan [diyan brade na ti, <i>it is not good to beat.</i>]
152. Goats . . .	uzo [<i>fem. tsālē.</i>]	177. Beating . . .	diyanasi [mē le adam diyanasi dita wa, <i>I gave that man to be beaten.</i>]
153. A male deer . . .	osē.	178. Having beaten . . .	pas diyan-ma [pas diyan-ma ao gēma, <i>after beating we went away</i>]
154. A female deer	179. I beat . . .	ao ditam.
155. Deer . . .	osē.	180. Thou beatest . . .	te ditama.
156. I am . . .	mē [hāzir] gam, <i>I am present.</i>	181. He beats . . .	le dita ti.
157. Thou art . . .	te [bēwukūf] tis.	182. We beat . . .	ao ditama.
158. He is . . .	le [bēwukūf] ti.	183. You beat . . .	tā ditama.
159. We are . . .	āo [sawa gharibāne] tima.	184. They beat . . .	le ditama.
160. You are . . .	tao [sawa kharābe] tizu.	185. I beat (<i>Past Tense</i>) . . .	mē dita wa.
161. They are . . .	lema [sawa brade] tina.	186. Thou beatest (<i>Past Tense</i>) . . .	te dita wa.
162. I was . . .	mē [suro] wāma [lema wakta khum], <i>at that time I was small.</i>	187. He beat (<i>Past Tense</i>) . . .	le [mīkana= <i>before</i>] dita wa.
163. Thou wast . . .	to [suro] wāz [jango wakta-manzum], <i>at the time of fighting thou wast small.</i>	188. We beat (<i>Past Tense</i>) . . .	ao [mīkana] dita wāma.
164. He was . . .	[le adam dūr] wa [galiz wakta khum], <i>that man was away at the time of theft.</i>	189. You beat (<i>Past Tense</i>) . . .	ta [mīkana] dita wāma.
165. We were . . .	āo [sawa] wāma.	190. They beat (<i>Past Tense</i>) . . .	le [mīkana] dita wāma.

English.	Tirāhī.	English.	Tirāhī.
191. I am beating . . .	mē dēma.	217. Go
192. I was beating	218. Going
193. I had beaten	219. Gone
194. I may beat	220. What is your name ? .	chāna nām ki ti ?
195. I shall beat . . .	mē badēm.	221. How old is thy horse ?	chāna kuz ^{ra} umar katési ti ?
196. Thou wilt beat . . .	te badēm	222. How far is it from here to Kashmir ?	lema jaisi Kashmir katési dūr ti ?
197. He will beat . . .	le badēm.	223. How many sons are there in your father's house ?	chāna mala thāna-manzum katisi put ^{ra} tina ?
198. We shall beat . . .	ao badēma.	224. I have walked a long way today.	ao az gaṇa panda khum gā wāma.
199. You will beat . . .	tā badēma.	225. The son of my uncle is married to my sister.	myāna trōras put ^r le myāna spazam manas ti.
200. They will beat . . .	le badēma.	226. In my house is the saddle of the white horse.	le parāna kuz ^{ra} zīn myāna thāna-manzum ti.
201. I should beat	227. Put the saddle upon his back.	le zīn kuz ^{ra} dāk khum thā.
202. I am beaten . . .	mē dita wāma.	228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.	lema ad ^{mas} put ^r khum mē brok ditina kere tina.
203. I was beaten	229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.	le ādam tāna māl brekhta khāra khum tsarū ti.
204. I shall be beaten	230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.	le ādam kuz ^{ra} dāka khum spāra ga brichat tōna (or waza).
205. I go . . .	mē gā wāma.	231. His brother is taller than his sister.	lemas spazunsi le ad ^{mas} brā gaṇa (or kaza) ti.
206. Thou goest . . .	tu de gā wāza.	232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.	lemas shisi dowādī rūpai kimat ti.
207. He goes . . .	le gā wa.	233. My father lives [for a long time] in that small house.	myāna mala lā sūrē thāna-manzum [brōk umar] langā ti.
208. We go . . .	ao gā wāma.	234. Give this rupee to him	le rūpai le adamasi dē.
209. You go . . .	tu de gā wāza.	235. Take those rupees from him.	lema-ma lā rūpai achhito.
210. They go	236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.	le adam brok do bē dāma khum tare.
211. I went	237. Draw water from the well.	kui-ma uwa prēla.
212. Thou wentest	238. Walk before me .	myāna mīkaura bo.
213. He went	239. Whose boy comes behind you ?	chāna patfikana kāmik badāna da ē ?
214. We went	240. From whom did you buy that ?	te le bāna kama adamasi (or adama-ma) achhita ti ?
215. You went	241. From a shopkeeper of the village.	le kila ek banyā-ma achhita ti.
216. They went		

1. The first part of the document discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all transactions. It emphasizes that proper record-keeping is essential for the transparency and accountability of the organization. This section also outlines the various methods used to collect and analyze data, ensuring that the information is reliable and up-to-date.

2. The second part of the document focuses on the financial aspects of the organization. It provides a detailed overview of the budget, including the projected income and expenses for the upcoming year. This section also discusses the various financial risks and how they are being managed to ensure the organization's financial stability.

3. The third part of the document addresses the operational challenges faced by the organization. It identifies the key areas where improvements are needed and outlines the strategies being implemented to address these challenges. This section also discusses the role of the various departments in the organization and how they are working together to achieve the organization's goals.

4. The fourth part of the document discusses the human resources of the organization. It provides a detailed overview of the current workforce, including the number of employees, their qualifications, and their experience. This section also discusses the various human resources challenges and how they are being managed to ensure the organization has the right people in the right positions.

5. The fifth part of the document discusses the legal and regulatory aspects of the organization. It provides a detailed overview of the various laws and regulations that apply to the organization and outlines the strategies being implemented to ensure compliance. This section also discusses the various legal risks and how they are being managed to ensure the organization's legal integrity.

6. The sixth part of the document discusses the environmental aspects of the organization. It provides a detailed overview of the organization's environmental impact and outlines the strategies being implemented to reduce this impact. This section also discusses the various environmental risks and how they are being managed to ensure the organization's environmental sustainability.

7. The seventh part of the document discusses the social aspects of the organization. It provides a detailed overview of the organization's social impact and outlines the strategies being implemented to improve this impact. This section also discusses the various social risks and how they are being managed to ensure the organization's social responsibility.

8. The eighth part of the document discusses the overall performance of the organization. It provides a detailed overview of the organization's performance over the past year, including the various achievements and challenges. This section also discusses the various performance risks and how they are being managed to ensure the organization's long-term success.

9. The ninth part of the document discusses the future of the organization. It provides a detailed overview of the organization's vision and mission, as well as the various strategies being implemented to achieve these goals. This section also discusses the various future risks and how they are being managed to ensure the organization's long-term success.

10. The tenth part of the document discusses the conclusion of the report. It summarizes the key findings of the report and outlines the various recommendations for the future. This section also discusses the various conclusion risks and how they are being managed to ensure the organization's long-term success.

VOCABULARY.

The following vocabulary contains all the Tirāhī words occurring in the preceding pages, and also all the words given by Leech in his collection on pages 782ff. of the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Volume VII (1838). The latter are spelt as given by Leech. Although there are possibly printer's errors in his list, I have not ventured to correct them.

The order of words is based on the alphabetical order of the consonants, without any regard to the vowels. The latter come into consideration only in cases in which the same consonant or consonants are followed or separated by different vowels. Thus, the different words containing the consonants *kn* will be found in the succession *kan*°, *kana*, *kune*. All words beginning with vowels are arranged together at the commencement of the Vocabulary, their mutual order being determined by the consonants. The letter *ñ* follows *n*, and *ts* follows *t*. For purposes of alphabetical order *v* and *w* are counted as the same letter. In other respects, the alphabetical order is that of the English alphabet.

To each article, when known to me, I have added the related words in other Dardic languages. Without attempting to give the etymology of every word, I have, when it appeared useful to do so, added the original Avesta or Sanskrit word which may be taken as the oldest known form of the particular Tirāhī word under consideration. When a word is borrowed from Paṣtō, the fact is also indicated.

The following is a list of the contractions employed to indicate the various languages referred to :—

List of Abbreviations (principally) of Language-names.

Ar.=Arabic.
Av.=Avesta.
B.=Bashgali.
Bal.=Balōchi.
Bur.=Burushaski.
G.=Gawarbatī.
Gār.=Gārwi.
H.=Hindōstāni.
Ish.=Ishkāshmi.
K.=Kalāshā.
Kh.=Khōwār.
Ksh.=Kāshmiri.
L.=List of Words.
Lnd.=Lahndā.
M.=Maiyā.
Mj.=Munjāni.
O. Prs.=Old Persian.

Or.=Ormuri.
P.=Pashai.
Par.=The Tirāhī version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son.
Phl.=Pahlavi.
Pr.=Prakrit.
Prs.=Persian.
Psht.=Paṣtō.
Sh.=Shiṇā.
Shg.=Shighni.
Sk.=Sarikoli.
Skr.=Sanskrit.
V.=Veron.
W.=Wai-alā.
Wkh.=Wakhi.
Yd.=Yūdghā.
Z.=Zebaki.

TIRĀHĪ VOCABULARY.

ai, interj. O !, *ai mala*, O father (Par. 12, 18, 21); *ai put^ra*, O son ! (Par. 31).

ao, *au*, pers. pron. I; *mē*, *mēn*, *masi*, *myāna*. For examples of all these forms, see Grammar, pages 279ff. [P. G. K. *ā*, I; P. *mēna*, K. *mai*, my.]

✓*ē*-, come (L. 80). In the Imperative, the base of this verb is *ēza*. See Grammar, page 291; *au az thānasi ēma*, I come to the house to-day (L. 80); *kī hissa ouē*, the share which comes (to me) (Par. 12). *kāmik badāna da-ē*, whose boy comes ? (L. 239).

thānasi bōgha ō, he came near the house (Par. 25); *chāna lā put^ra ō*, thy this son came (Par. 30); *gar gāwa, kāla ō*, he was lost, now he came (Par. 32).

lā jaltī ū, he came quickly (Par. 20); *mala tarafe ū*, he came towards the father (Par. 20); *le gar gāwa, kāla ū*, he was lost, now he came (Par. 24); *āwāz ū*, the sound came (to him) (Par. 25).

chāna brā ū-tī, thy brother has come (Par. 27); *khabar ut-tī*, news has come (L. 109, 122, 127); *khat ut-tī*, a letter has come (L. 113). [P. ✓*yē*-, Sh. ✓*ē*-, Ksh. ✓*yī*-, K. *au*, P. *ai-k*, came; with *ēza*, cf. B. ✓*ats*- and Skr. *āgachchha*.]

ō, *ū*, see ✓*ē*-.

achchhe, the eye (L. 35); Leech, *achcha*. [K. *ech*, G. *iṭsi-n*, Sh. *aṇchhē*, Ksh. *achhē*; Skr. *akṣi*-, Av. *ash*.]

achhita, *lē azī achhite*, took his mouth (fem.), i. e., kissed him (Par. 20); *lema-ma lā rūpai achhito*, take those rupees from him (L. 235); *te achhita ti*, hast thou bought (L. 240); *achhita ti*, (I) have bought (L. 241). [? cf. P. ✓*ac*-, bring.]

ād^am (L. 26) or *adam* (L. 51); *braḍa adam*, a good man (L. 119); *le braḍa ad^am ti*, he is a good man (L. 26); *le adam dur wa*, that man was distant (L. 164); *le ādam*, = he (L. 229, 230), = him (L. 236); *le adam prēgē*, that man sent (him) (Par. 15).

ek ad^ama lā khare natī gā, he (?) took refuge with a man (Par. 15); *braḍa adama-ma*, from a good man (L. 122).

ek ad^amas do put^ra wāna, of a man there were two sons (Par. 11); *braḍa adamas thān bōgha ti*, the house of a good man is near (L. 120); *lema ad^amas put^ra khum*, on the son of that man (L. 228); *le ad^amas brā*, his brother (L. 231).

braḍa adamas le khat dē, give this letter to the good man (L. 121); *le rūpai le adamas dē*, give this rupee to him (L. 234); *te kāma adamasī* (or *adama-ma*) *achhita ti*, from whom have you bought ? (L. 240).

tā tre ād^ama hokhyār tiza, you three men are clever (L. 23); *le ād^ama kharāb tina*, those men are bad (L. 29); *do braḍa adama*, two good men (L. 123); *braḍa adama lema khār-manzum brōk tina*, there are many good men in this town (L. 124).

mēn samo tre ād^amo k^hārasī da bazām, we three men all go to town (L. 17).

braḍa adaman thāna sūra tina, the houses of the good men are small (L. 125); *sawa braḍa adaman le k^habar dē-o*, give this news to all good men (L. 126).

braḍa adamansi k^habar ut ti, news has come from the good men (L. 127). [Psht. *ādam*.]

odasta; lā brōk odasta gā, he became very hungry (Par. 14); *ao lemaji odasta-ni marā gam*, I here have died (= am dying) from hunger (Par. 17). Cf. *udhast*, hunger (Leech). [? Cf. B. *ot*, V. *ut*, W. *avot*, hunger.]

ogā, the shoulder (Leech). [Psht. *ōga*.]

ek, one (L. 1); *le pakīrasi ek āna dē*, give one anna to the faqīr (L. 84); *ek ad^amas*, of a man (Par. 11); *le mulk^a-manzum ek ad^ama lā k^hare natī gā*, he (?) took refuge with a man in that country (Par. 15); *ek breḍa batṣa ānines*, bring ye for him a good calf (Par. 23); *ek tānu naukari gā ti*, he went to one, his own, servant (Par. 26); *ek dēn m'ra gā tē*, a cow has died (L. 83); *ek k^harāb kumār*, a bad girl (L. 131); *ek banyā-ma*, from a shopkeeper (L. 241). Cf. Leech's *īk*, one.

eka strē tē, there is a woman (L. 52). [Cf. B. *ē*, *ev*; W. *ī*, *ek*; G. *yak*; K. Sh. *ek*; Ksh. *akh*.]

eko, eleven (L. 10), (Leech *īko*).

ūkh, pl. *ukhāna*, a camel (L. 75) (Leech *ūkh*). [Psht. *ūkh*.]

akht, eight (L. 8). (Leech *ākht*). [Cf. P. *akht*, *asht*, and so others.]

akhto, eighteen (Leech). Cf. *atāra*.

āllakh, a side (Leech). [Psht. *ar^hkh*.]

āma, raw (Leech). [Psht. *ōm*.]

umar; *myāna dun umar*, the age of my daughters (L. 116); *chāna kuz^ara umar katēsi ti*, how old is thy horse (L. 221); *brōk umar*, for a great age (? = for a long time) (L. 233). [Psht. *ūmr*.]

anā, an egg (Stein). [Cf. Skr. *andā*.]

anā, bring ye (Par. 22); *ānines*, bring ye it for him (Par. 23). [Ksh. *✓an*-.]

āna, an anna (L. 84).

andarun, adv. within, to within (Par. 28). [B. *atēr*, W. *attar*, K. *udhrīman*, G. *atran*, Kh. *andrēnī*, Ksh. *andar*.]

angur; *lema asto manzum angur tsiya*, put ye a ring on his hand (Par. 23). [Prs. *angushtar*, G. *angustar*.]

✓ar-.; *bo aram*, I will say (Par. 18); *lā tānu ōre-manzum arī*, he said in his heart (Par. 17); *putre-na le-na arī*, the son said to him (Par. 21); *mala tānu naukarānosī arī*, the father said to his servants (Par. 22); *le-na lasī arī*, he said to him (Par. 27). [Cf. Sh. *✓re*-.]

ure, *ōre*; *le ure-manzum*, in his heart (Par. 16); *urē khushāl gā*, the heart became joyful (Par. 32); *andarun gāwa ure na wā*, his heart was not for going (i.e., he did not wish to go) inside (Par. 28); *lā tānu ōre-manzum arī*, he said in his heart (Par. 17). [Cf. Psht. *zra*, B. *zare*, G. *heṛa*, P. *harā*.]

wrinde, see *wrinde*.

wryaz, a cloud (Leech). [Psht. *waryadz*.]

osē pl. *osē*, a male deer (L. 153, 155) (Leech *osai*). [Psht. *ōsai*.]

āsmān, heaven (sg. gen.) (Par. 18, 21). [Psht. *āsmān*.]

ast, a hand (L. 32); (Leech *hast*); *asta wrinde*, he embraced (Par. 20); *lema asto manzum angur*, (put) a ring on his hand (Par. 22). [K. *hāst*; G. *hast*; P. *hāst*, *hās*; Kh. *host*; Skr. *hastā*.]

ut, see $\sqrt{ē}$.

āth, flour (Leech). [? Cf. Lnd. *āṭā*.]

\sqrt{uth} -; *utha*, stand up (impv.) (L. 82); *au lema kursi-ma uthum*, I rise up from this chair (L. 82). [Cf. B. \sqrt{usht} , Ksh. $\sqrt{wōth}$, Skr. *utthita*-; Śaurasēnī Prakrit, *utthidō*; but Lnd., etc. $\sqrt{ūth}$.]

atāra, eighteen (L. 10). Leech *akhto*. [Cf. Lnd. *aṭhārā*.]

owē, see $\sqrt{ē}$.

uwa, water (L. 66); *uwa* (L. 237); Leech *wā*. [Psht. *ōba*; B. *ōv*, W. *ao*, K. *u-k*, G. *au*, M. *wi*, Sh. *wei*.]

āwāz, sound, noise (Par. 25). [Psht. *āwāz*.]

az, today (L. 62, 64, 80, 224). [Ksh. *az*.]

azē, the mouth (L. 36); Leech, *āzē*; *lā azē achhite*, he kissed him (Par. 20). [B. *azhē*; Sh. *āzē*, *āi*; M. Gār. *āi*.]

ēza, see $\sqrt{ē}$.

uz (pl. *uzo*; f. *tsālī*), a he-goat (L. 150, 152). [Psht. *wuz*.]

ūzh gunī, goat's hair (Leech). [Psht. *ūzh ghūnē*.]

ba or *bo*, sign of future. See Grammar, p. 292.

bē (L. 95), *be*, *bē*, and; *āsmān be chāna nazar*, of heaven and in thy sight (Par. 18, 21); *do be dāma khum tare*, beat and bind with ropes (L. 236); *lā bē gā*, and he went (Par. 13); *myāna shpūn bē*, (?) of me the shepherd also (Par. 16). [Ksh. *biyē*.]

bē, see *bē* and *biau*.

$\sqrt{bē}$ -, sit; the present and imperative base of this verb is *bēz*-, as in *bēza*, sit! (List 79); *bēzum*, I sit (L. 79). Cf. Grammar, p. 291. [M. \sqrt{bhai} -, Gār. \sqrt{bai} -, Sh. $\sqrt{bē}$ -, Ksh. $\sqrt{bēh}$ -, H. \sqrt{bais} -, Skr. *upa-vis*-.]

biau (L. 11), *bhyā* (Leech), twenty; *biau-dah* (L. 11), *bhyoudā* (Leech), thirty; *biau-eko*, thirty-one (L. 11); *do-bē*, forty (L. 11); *do-biau-ek*, forty-one (L. 11); *da-biau-dah*, fifty (L. 11); *da-biau-eko*, fifty-one (L. 11); *tre-hē* sixty (L. 11); *tre-biau-dah*, seventy; *tsawor-bē*, eighty (L. 11); *tsawor-biau-dah*, ninety (L. 11); *panz-bē*, one hundred (L. 12). [Sh. *bēh*, Ksh. *wuh*, P. *wōst*, Skr. *vimśati*-.]

bo, sign of the future, in *lesi bo aram*, I will say to him (Par. 18). See Grammar. p. 292, and cf. *ba*.

bō (L. 11), *bo* (Leech), twelve; *da biau bo*, fifty-two (L. 12).

✓*bo*- or *bō*-, to become, to go; *jalti bo*, go quickly (Par. 22); *bo*, go! (L. 77), walk! (L. 238).

The present base of this verb is optionally *baz*-, as in *bazam*, I will go (Par. 18); *au da bazam*, I am going (L. 77); *mēn samo tre ād^{mo} khārasi da bazam*, we three men all go to town (L. 17). Cf. Grammar, p. 291.

bo, be! (L. 168); *bēm*, I am (Par. 18); *bazam*, I may be (L. 172); *bazum*, I shall be (L. 173).

Cf. *gā*.

[Cf. G. *bua*, he was; Skr. *bhūta*-. Cf. also Sh. *bōiki*, to become; *bujōiki*, to go.]

✓*bich*-, *bīcho*, see!, behold! (Par. 29); *mala bīchē*, the father saw (him) (Par. 20). [Cf. Skr. ✓*vikṣ*-? Cf. also Ksh. ✓*wuch*-.]

bhadai, see *baṛē*.

ba-dēm, see ✓*dē*-.

badmāshē-khum, in riotous living (Par. 13). [Prs. *bad-ma'āshē*.]

bad^{na}, a child; *le bad^{na} myāna putr ti*, that child is my son (L. 54); *lema tre bad^{na} malasi khabar ut ti*, information has come from the fathers of these three children (L. 109); *khārāb badani*, a bad boy (L. 129); *kēmik badāna da-ē*, whose boy comes? (L. 239).

bōgha (L. 120), (?) *bōkh* (L. 87), *boga* (Leech), near; *thānasi bōgha ō*, he came near the house (Par. 25); *braḍa adamas thān bōgha ti*, the house of the good man is near (L. 120); *tao sawa bōgha wāma*, you were all near by (L. 166). [? Cf. Skr. *upāka*, Ōr. *bōz*.]

bhūm (Leech), earth. [Skr. *bhūmi*-, Ksh. *būm*.]

bāhr, outside; *ao chāna hukum-ma bāhr nā gim*, I did not go outside thy order (Par. 29). [Psht. *bāhir*.]

bāla (L. 39), *bāl* (Leech), hair. [Gār. *bāl*, M. *bāla*, Sh. *bālī*, Ksh. *wāl*, Skr. *vāla*-.]

bālī (Leech), wind. [Cf. Prs. *bād*, Av. Skr. *vāta*-.]

bilolec (?) (Leech), a cat. [Ksh. *brōr^u*, Skr. *biḍāla*-.]

bāna, ? a vessel, dish (L. 240). [Ksh. *bāna*, a vessel.]

bhaṇa (Leech), a plate. [See the preceding.]

banyā-ma, from a shopkeeper (L. 241).

brā (L. 49), *bhrā* (Leech), a brother; *chāna brā ū ti*, any brother has come (Par. 27); *chāna brā muṛa gāwa*, thy brother had died (Par. 32); *le-mas spazunsi le ad^{mas} brā kaza ti*, his brother is taller than his sister (L. 231). [B. *brōh*, W. *brā*, G. *bluia*, Ksh. *bōy^a*, Av. *brātar*-, Skr. *bhrātar*-.]

bār (Leech), fruit. [Psht. *bār*.]

baṛē (L. 139), *bhadai* (Leech), a mare; pl. *baṛē* (L. 141). [Cf. Skr. *vaḍabā*.]

bīr ākh (Leech), a he-camel; *bīra tsinda* (Leech), a he-goat. [Cf. K. *birēra rōuz*, Sh. *bīrō rōz*, a male deer.]

brīch (Leech), a tree; *le ādam kuz^{ra} dāka khum spāra ga brīchat tōna*, he is sitting on a horse under a tree (L. 230). [Skr. *vrkṣa*-.]

braḍa (L. 132), *breḍa*, good. For examples, see Grammar, p. 276.[?]

burod (Leech), a wolf.

brij, a tower; *lema brijasi le kaza ti*, this tower is higher than that (L. 136); *sawa brijan-ma le brij kaza ti*, this is the highest tower of all (L. 137). [Psht. *bruj*.]

brōk or (Leech) *brokh*, many; much; well, very. For examples, see Grammar, p. 277. [? cf. B. *bilugh*, *belyuk*.]

brekh (Leech), pain. [Psht. *brēkh*.]

brekh^{ta}, a hill; *le ādam tāna māl brekh^{ta} khāra khum tsarū-ti*, he is grazing his cattle on the top of the hill (L. 229).

barsāt (Leech), rain. [H. *barsāt*.]

brēt (Leech), a moustache. (Psht. *brēt*.)

bat (Leech), a stone. [B. *wōtt*, Lnd. *vattā*.]

batsa, a calf; *ek breḍa batsa ānines*, bring a good (i.e. fatted) calf (Par. 23); *chāna mala lā breḍa batsa kukhto*, thy father slaughtered the good calf (Par. 27); *te lema da-pāra breḍa batsa kukhto*, thou slaughteredst for his sake the good calf (Par. 30). [Psht. *bachai*.]

bēwukūf, in *te bēwukūf tis*, thou art foolish (L. 157). [Prs. *bē-wuqūf*.]

biyātai (Leech), scissors. (Psht. *biyātī*.)

bēza, see √ *bē*.

bīzo (Leech), midday.

bazam, see √ *bo*.

chi in *chi kere*, he wasted (his substance) (Par. 13, 30); *chiz kere*, he expended (Par. 14).

chāna, see *to*.

chap (Leech), left (not right). [Prs.]

chiz, see *chi*.

da (for *dō*, two, q. v.).

da, of; *da mē* or *masi-da*, of me (L. 15); *da-pāra*, for the sake of, on account of, *lema da-pāra breḍa batsa kukhto*, for his sake thou slaughteredst the fatted calf (Par. 30). [Psht. *da*.]

da, *dē*, apparently an auxiliary verb meaning "is," added to other verbs (like Psht. *dai*, f. *da*); *au da bazam*, I am going (L. 77); *chāna khidmat au da kerem*, I am doing thy service (Par. 29); *tu de gāwāza*, thou goest (L. 206); *kāmik badāna da ē*, whose boy comes (L. 239); *mēn samo tre ād^{mo} khārasi da bazam*, we three men all go to town (L. 17); *au dē kām khushālī karēm*, let us eat, let us do rejoicing (L. 24); *tu de gāwāza*, you go (L. 209); *au dēm*, I may be (Par. 19, 21), is doubtful. [Psht. *dai*, f. *da*.]

✓ *dē*-, give; *le pakīrasi ek āna dē*, give one anna to the faqīr (L. 84); *braḍa adamasi le khat dē*, give this letter to a good man (L. 121); *le rūpai le adamasi dē*, give this rupee to him (L. 234); *lā masi dē*, give that to me (Par. 12).

le khat malasi dēm, I give this letter to the father (L. 103).

mē le adam diyanasi dita wa, I gave that man to be beaten (L. 177); *tē masi tsālī tsindar nā dita*, thou didst not give me a kid (Par. 29); *lāsi kī nā dita*, no one gave to him (Par. 16); *le malasi jawāb dita*, he gave answer to his father (Par. 29); *mala gaṇa putrasi jawāb dita*, the father gave answer to the elder son (Par. 31).

grē re ditana (Par. 17), ? the meaning. *dita-na* may = 'were given'; *ditanas*, he said (gave) to him (? was-addressed-by-him-he, see Grammar, p. 294.) (Par. 12). [Cf. the next.]

✓ *dē*-, beat, strike. The present base of this verb is optionally *daz*- or *diz*-, as in *diz* (L. 81), *daz* (L. 175), strike (? pl.); *le adam brok do*, beat that man well (L. 236). Cf. Grammar, p. 291.

dēm, I beat (L. 81); *mē dēma*, I am striking (L. 191); *ao ditam*, I strike (L. 179); *te ditama*, thou strikest (L. 180); *le dita ti*, he strikes (L. 181); *ao ditama*, we strike (L. 182); *tā ditama*, you strike (L. 183); *le ditama*, they strike (L. 184). Except the first two, these all are probably really in the past tense. See Gr. p. 290.

mē (, *te*, *le*) *ba-dēm*, I (, thou, he) shall (will) strike (L. 195-197); *ao* (, *tā*, *le*) *badēma*, we (, you, they) shall (will) strike (L. 198-200).

mē (, *te*, *le*) *dita wa*, I (, thou, he) struck (L. 185-187); *ao* (, *ta*, *le*) *dita wāma*, we (, you, they) struck (L. 188-190).

mē dita wāma, I am struck (L. 202).

ditin, a stripe; *le-ma ad^amas put^r k^hum mē brok ditina kere tīna*, I have made many stripes on that man's son.

diyan, the act of striking; *diyan braḍe na ti*, it is not good to strike (L. 176); *pas diyan-ma ao gēma*, after beating we went away (L. 178); *mē le adam diyanasi dita wa*, I gave that man to be beaten (L. 177).

[In many Dardic languages, the same word is used for both "give" and "beat." Kh. ✓ *dī*-, give, beat; K. ✓ *de*-, give, ✓ *tī*-, beat; P. Sh. ✓ *dē*-, give; Sh. *dōiki*, to beat, (Chilāsī), ✓ *dē*-, beat; Gār. ✓ *dā*-, give; M. ✓ *dai*-(p. p. *dīt*), give; Ksh. ✓ *dī*-(p. p. *dyut*^a), give; Av. Skr. ✓ *dā*-.]

dē, a daughter (L. 56, 110); *le surē myāna dē tē*, this little one is my daughter (L. 56); *le myāna dē panzī sansar tē*, my daughter is fifteen years (of age) (L. 111); *dēsī*, to a daughter (L. 112); *myāna dūnsi khat ut ti*, news has come from my daughter (L. 113); *dō dē*, two daughters (L. 114); *tre dē*, three daughters (L. 115); *myāna dūn umar*, the age of my daughters (L. 116); *dūnsi*, to daughters (L. 117), from daughters (L. 118). [M. *dhī*, Sh. *dī*, Gār. *dūi*, Pr. *dhīā*, Skr. *duhitār*-.]

do, see ✓ *dē*-, beat.

dō, (L. 2), *dū* (Leech), two; *ek ad^amas dō put^ra wāna*, of a certain man there were two sons (Par. 11); *dō mala tīna*, they are two fathers (L. 105); *dō dē*, two daughters (L. 114); *dō braḍa adama*, two good men (L. 123).

do bē (L. 11), *dū bhyū* (Leech), forty; *do biau ek*, forty-one (L. 11); *da biau dah*, fifty (L. 12); *da biau eko*, fifty-one (L. 12); *da biau ōo*, fifty-two (L. 12).

[B. W. *du*, P. G. K. Sh. Gār. M. *dū*, Av. Skr. *dva*-.]

dādi, a beard (Leech). [B. *dāri*, Ksh. *dōr*², Skr. *dādrikā*.]

dūda, (? *dūda*), dust (Leech). [Psht. *dūra*.]

dudh, milk (Leech). [Ksh. *dōd*, Skr. *dugdha*-.]

dah, ten (Leech), L. 10. [P. *dē*, G. K. Gār. M. *dash*, Ksh. *dah*, Skr. *daśan*-.]

dhūng, smoke (Leech). [B. *dūm*, Ksh. *d²h*, Prs. *dū*, Psht. *lū*, Skr. *dhūma*-.]

dhūng, a needle (Leech).

dāk, the back (L. 43); *le zīn kuz²ra dāk khum thā*, put this saddle on the horse's back (L. 227); *le ādam kuz²ra dāka khum spāra ga brichat tōna*, he is sitting on a horse under that tree (L. 230). [K. *dāk*; M. *dāg*, *dā*. ? cf. Ksh. *dak*-, a support.]

dāl, a shield (Leech). [Psht. *dāl*.]

dama (L. 42), *damma* (Leech), the belly.

dām, a rope; *dāma khum tare*, bind (him) with ropes (L. 236). [Psht. *dām*, a snare].

dēm, see *da*, *dē*, and ✓ *dē*-, give.

domāma āwāz (Par. 25), the noise of drums. [Psht. *damāma*.]

dēn (L. 69, 143), *dhen* (Leech), a cow; *az myāna thāna-manzum ek dēn m²ra gā tē*, today a cow died in my house (L. 83); *dēn*, cows (L. 145). Cf. *gō*. [Skr. *dhēnu*-, a cow. ? cf. K. *dōn*, Sh. *dōnō*, a bull.]

dun, see *dē*, a daughter.

dant (L. 37), *danda* (Leech), a tooth; *chāna sanās dante brōk trighna tīna*, the teeth of your dog are very sharp (L. 146). [B. *dutt*; W. *dūt*²; K. *dandōriak*; G. *dāt*; P. *dānd*, *dānt*; Gār. Ksh. *dand*; M. *dān*; Kh. *don*; Prs. *dandān*; Skr. *danta*-.]

da-pāra, see *da*, of.

dūr (L. 89), *dūr* (Leech), far; *le adam dūr wa galiz wakta khum*, that man was away at the time of the theft (L. 164); *lā bē gā dūr mulkasi*, and he went to a far country (Par. 13); *lā dūr wa mala bīchī*, he was distant (when) the father saw (him) (Par. 20). [Psht. *dūr*.]

drig (Leech), long; *driga* (Leech), tall. [B. *drgr*, K. *drīga*, M. *līga*, Sh. *zhīgō*, Ōr. *chīg*, Skr. *dirgha*-.]

drīst (Leech), false.

das (Leech), a day; cf. *daz*.

dōst, a friend; *ki tānu dōstāna sama khushāli kere*, that I made rejoicing with my own friends (Par. 29). [Psht. *dōst*.]

dīta, see ✓ *dē*-, give, and ✓ *dē*-, beat.

ditana, ditanas, see √ *dē*-, give.

ditin, see √ *dē*-, beat.

dowadī, two and a half; *lemas shisi dowadī rūpai kimat ti*, the price of that is two rupees and a half (L. 232).

diyan, daz, diz, see √ *dē*-, beat.

daz, or (Leech) *das*, a day; *tsuk^a daze pas*, after a few days (Par. 13). [P. *dawās, dwās*; M. *dis*; Gār. *dōs*; Sh. *dēs*; Ksh. *dōh*; Skr. *divasa*-.]

dēzī, ? today; *dēzī hāzir bazum*, I shall be present (L. 173). The meaning of this word is very doubtful.

gā, went, became. Apparently used as the past tense of √ *bō*-, q. v.

In L. 205-209, it is apparently used in a present sense, although the forms are certainly those of a past, or rather of a pluperfect. Thus:—*mē gā wāma*, I go; *tu de gā wāza*, thou goest; *le gā wa*, he goes; *ao gā wāma*, we go; *tu de ga wāza*, you go (? singular). Possibly these are shown as presents by mistake, for we also have *ao az gaṇa panda khum gā wāma*, I have gone a long way today (L. 224).

Other forms with the meaning of "go" are *ao chāna hukum-ma bāhr nā gim*, I did not go outside thy order (Par. 29); *lā bē gā dūr mulkasi*, and he went to a far country (Par. 13); *ek tānu naukaris ga* (read *gā*) *ti*, he has gone to one of his own servants (Par. 26); *pas diyan-ma ao gēma*, after beating we went away (L. 178). In *andarun gāwa ure na wā*, his heart was not for going inside (Par. 28), *gāwa* appears to be used as a verbal noun.

Forms with the meaning of "become" or "be" are:—*ao odastani marā gam*, I am become dead (i.e. I die) of hunger (Par. 17); *mē hāzir gam*, I am present (L. 156); *lā brōk odasta gā*, he became very hungry (Par. 14); *lā gaṇa put^r ghussa khum gā*, that elder son became in anger (Par. 28); *urē khushāl gā*, the heart became (i.e. is) joyful (Par. 32); *kāla jinde gā*, now he became (i.e. is) alive (Par. 24, 32).

le kī gā ti, this what is become (Par. 26); *lema-ma khabar gā ti*, of him the news is become, i.e. of him it is said (L. 27); *az myāna thāna-manzum ek dēn m'ra gā tē*, today a cow is become dead (i.e. died) in my house (L. 83).

le gar gā wa, he had become lost (Par. 24, 32); *le myāna put^r (chāna brā) muṛa gā wa*, this my son (thy brother) had become dead (Par. 24, 32).

Doubtful is *natī ga* in *ek ad^ama lā khare natī ga*, (?) he took refuge near a man (Par. 15).

[B. *go*; W. *goā*; G. Gār. *gā*; P. *gī-k*; Sh. *gaō*; Ksh. *gō(v)*; Skr. *gata*-. In Ksh. the verb means both "go" and "become."]

gō, a bull (L. 142); *go*, a bullock (Leech); *brōk gō*, many bulls (L. 144). Cf. *dēn*.

[G. *gō*, M. *gā*, P. *gō-lang*, Sh. (dialect) *gōlō*, all meaning "bull"; Av. Skr. *gav-*, *gō-*, an ox, a cow.]

gaḍ (Leech), mud. [? cf. Psht. *gaḍ*, blended.]

gadḥ (Leech), clarified butter [? cf. Psht. *ghwarī*.]

- gīdad* (? *gīdaḍ*) (Leech), a jackal. [Psht. *gīdar*.]
gidān; *gidān āwāz ū*, the sound of singing came (Par. 25). [Cf. Skr. *gīta*-; cf. K. *gūro*, P. *gē*, M. *gēla*.]
gūgh (Leech), deep. [? Cf. B. *guru*.]
ghodī (Leech), abuse.
ghulām, a slave (L. 57). [Psht. *ghulām*.]
ghom (Leech), wheat. [Psht. *ghanum*.]
ghar (Leech), a mountain. [Psht. *ghar*.]
ghurr (Leech), a bow (the weapon). [Cf. Psht. *ghur-kamān*, a pellet-bow.]
ghās (Leech), grass. [Skr. *ghāsa*-; Ksh. *gāsa*.]
ghasha (Leech), an arrow. [Psht. *ghashai*.]
ghussā, anger; *ghussā khum gā*, he became angry (Par. 28). [Psht. *ghuṣṣa*.]
ghwar (Leech), good. [Psht. *ghwara*.]
ghwar kand (Leech), thunder. [Cf. Psht. *ghurumb*, thunder.]
gul (Leech), a flower. [Psht. *gul*.]
golai (Leech), a bullet. [Psht. *gōlai*.]
galiz, theft; *galiz wakta khum*, at the time of the theft (L. 164). (Cf. Psht. *ghal*, a thief.)
gaṇa or (Leech) *ghaṇa*, great, large, tall, elder. *ao az gaṇa panda khum gā wāma*, I went a long way today (L. 224); *lemas spazunsi le admas brā gaṇa ti*, his brother is taller than his sister (L. 231); *le sām gaṇa putar tsakalān manzum wā*, his elder son was in the fields (Par. 25); *lā gaṇa putar ghussā khum gā*, that elder son became angry (Par. 28); *mala gaṇa putrasi jawāb dita*, the father gave answer to the elder son (Par. 31). [Psht. *gaṇ*, close, dense.]
gunī, in *ūzh gunī*, goat's hair (Leech). (Cf. Psht. *ghūndai*, a bag made of goat's hair.)
gunagār; *gunagār bēm*, I am a sinner (Par. 18); *brōk gunagār tim*, I am a great sinner (Par. 21). [Psht. *gunahgār*.]
grē, in *grē re ditana*, ? meaning (Par. 17).
gar, in *(le) gar gā wa*, he had been lost (Par. 24, 32).
grānī, a famine; *le mulke manzum brōk grānī wē*, a great famine happened in that land (Par. 14). [Psht. *grānī*.]
gushthānī (Leech), a house. Cf. *thān*.
giya, run! (L. 85).
hokhyār, clever; *to hokhyār tis*, thou art clever (L. 20). [Psht. *hōkhyār*.]
hukum, an order; *ao chāna hukum-ma bākr nā gim*, I did not go outside thy order (Par. 29). [Psht. *hukm*.]
hindwānā (Leech), a water-melon. [Psht. *hindwāna*.]
hissa, a share; *myāna māla manzum ki hissa owē*, the share in the property which comes mine (Par. 12). [Psht. *hiṣṣa*.]

h ast (Leech), a hand. Cf. *ast*.

hāzīr, present; *mē hāzīr gam*, I am present (L. 156); *le sawa hāzīr wāma*, they were all present (L. 167); *dēzī hāzīr bazum*, (?) today I shall be present (L. 173). [Psht. *hāzīr*.]

jai, a place; *lema jaisi Kashmīr katēsi dūr ti*, how far is Kashmir from this place? (L. 222). [Psht. *dzāe*.]

jub, the tongue (L. 41). [Psht. *zhība*; W. *jip*; K. Sh. *jib*; P. *jīb*, *jub*; Skr. *jihvā*.]

jaltī, quickly; *lā jaltī ū*, he came quickly (Par. 20); *jaltī bō*, go quickly (Par. 22). [Psht. *jalt*, quick.]

jama; *sure put'r tānu māl jama kere*, the younger son collected his property (Par. 13). [Psht. *jama'*.]

jāmā, a garment; *lema-ma breḍa jāmāna anā*, bring for him good garments (Par. 22). [Psht. *jāma*.]

jinde, alive; *kāla jinde gā*, now he is alive (Par. 24, 32). [Psht. *zhwandai*.]

jang, fighting; *to suro wāz jango wakta manzum*, at the time of fighting thou wast small (L. 163). [Psht. *jang*.]

jawāb, an answer; *le malasi jawāb dila*, he gave answer to the (? his) father (Par. 29); *mala gāṇa putrasi jawāb dila*, the father gave answer to the (? his) elder son (Par. 31). [Psht. *jawāb*.]

ki, *kī*, interrog. pron. what? *le ki ti*, what is that? (L. 93); *chāna nām ki ti*, what is your name? (L. 220); *le kī gā ti*, what has happened? (Par. 26); *ki sawab ti*, why? (L. 94). Cf. *kāma*. [B. *kē*, *kai*; P. *kō*; G. *kī*; K. *kia*; Kh. *kya*; Ksh. *kyāh*; Gār. *kai*; M. *gī*.]

ki, rel. pron. who, what; *chāna la put'r ō*, *ki chāna māl-maṭa strizī khum chī kere*, thy this son came, who wasted thy property on women (Par. 30); *myāna mālā manzum ki hissa owē*, amongst the property, the share which comes to me (Par. 12).

ki, conj. that; *le kkiyāl wa ki*, this thought was that—(Par. 16); *munāsib nā ti ki*, it is not proper that (Par. 19, 21); *tsālī tsindar nā dila ki tānu dōstāna sama khushālī kere*, thou didst not give a kid, in order that I might make rejoicing with my own friends (Par. 29). [Psht. *ki*.]

kī, by anyone; *lāsi kī nā dila*, no one gave to him (Par. 16).

[anyone, B. Sh. *kō*, W. *kī*, P. *kī*, Kh. *kā*, Ksh. *kāh*, M. *kañ*.]

kui or (Leech) *ku,ai*, a well; *kui-ma uwa prēla*, draw water from the well (L. 237). [G. *kui*, Ksh. (dialect) *khūh*, Gār. *kōi*, M. *kōh*.]

kuckh (Leech), butter. [Psht. *kuch*.]

khā, (?) when; *khā thānasi bōghā ō*, when he came near the house (Par. 25).

✓ *khā*-, *kha*, eat! (L. 78); *ao dē kām* (?) *khām*, let us eat (Par. 23). [M.

✓ *kha*-, Gār. ✓ *khō*-, Ksh. ✓ *khi*-, Skr. ✓ *khād*-.]

khō, *khō*, ? food; *wranin khō myāna shpun bē khō*, (?) the food of the sheep (is) the food of me the shepherd also (Par. 16).

kho, card. six (Leech, L. 6). [B. Gār. *sho* ; W. *shū* ; P. *sh** ; *khē* ; G. M. *shoh* ; K. *shōh* ; Sh. Ksh. *shah* ; Av. *khshvash* ; Skr. *shash-*.]

khābar, news; *lema-ma khābar gā ti*, of him it is said (L. 27); *lema tre bad'na malasi khābar ut ti*, information has come from the father of these three children (L. 109). [Psht. *khābar*.]

khod, see *khōla*.

Khudāi, God (L. 60). [Psht. *Khudāe*.]

khka (Leech), a horn. [Psht. *khkar*.]

khōla (L. 10), *khod* (Leech), card. sixteen.

khum, in, among; with, by means of. For examples, see Grammar, p. 274.

khīna, a wife; *le strē myāna khīna tē*, this woman is my wife (L. 53). [Psht. *khīna*, a wife's sister.]

khār, a town; *mēn samo tre ād'mo khārasi da bazam*, we three men all go to town (L. 17). [Psht. *khahr*.]

khār, the head (L. 40); the top of anything; *brekhta khāra khum*, on the top of a hill (L. 228).

khare, near, with; *lā khārē natī ga*, (?) took refuge near him (Par. 15); *tē mēkha mē-kharē wē*, thou wast always with me (Par. 31).

khārāb, bad. For examples, see Grammar, p. 278. [Psht.]

khurg (Leech), the armpit. [Psht. *tkharg*.]

khushāl, joyful; *urē khushāl gā*, the heart became joyful (Par. 32). [Psht. *khūsh-hāl*.]

khushālī, rejoicing; *ao dē kām* (? *khām*), *khushālī karēm*, let us eat, let us do rejoicing (Par. 23); *tānu khushālī lān kere*, they made their rejoicing (Par. 24); *ki tānu dōstāna sama khushālī kere*, that I made rejoicing with my own friends (Par. 29); *khushālī karan munāsib wā*, to do rejoicing was proper (Par. 32). [Psht. *khūsh-hālī*.]

khat, a letter; *le khat malasi dēm*, I give this letter to the father (L. 103); *myāna dunsī khat ut ti*, news has come from my daughter (L. 113); *braḍa adamasi le khat dē*, give this letter to the good man (L. 121). [Psht. *khatt*.]

khwai (Leech), right (not left). [Psht. *khai*.]

khīyāl, thought; *le urē manzum le khīyāl wa*, this thought was in his heart (Par. 16). [Psht. *khīyāl*.]

kukhto; *lās kukhto*, slaughter it (Par. 23); *chāna mala lā breḍa batsa kukhto*, thy father hath slaughtered the good calf (Par. 27); *te lema da-pāra breḍa batsa kukhto*, thou slaughteredst for him the good calf (Par. 30).

kukri, pl., young dogs, pups (L. 149) [a puppy, Psht. *kūtrai*; a dog, B. *kuri*, V. *kerukh*, Gār. *kūchur*, M. *kūsar*, Skr. *kukkura*.]

kāla, now (Par. 19, 24 (bis), 32 (bis)). [? cf. Psht. *kala*, at any time. Cf. Skr. *kala*-time.]

kila, a village; *le kila ek banyā-ma achhita ti*, I bought it from a shopkeeper of this village (L. 241). [Psht. *kilai*, *qil'a*.]

kām (? *khām*), see ✓ *khā*.

kāma, interrog. pron., who?; *le adam kāma ti*, who is that man (L. 92)?; *chāna patīkana kāmik badāna da ē*, whose boy comes behind you? (L. 239); *te le bāna kāma adamasi* (or *adama-ma*) *achhita ti*, from whom did you buy that? (L. 240). Cf. *ki*, what? [B. *kū*; W. *kē*; P. *kē*, *kiā*; G. *kara*; K. *kūra*; Kh. *kā*; Sh. *kō*; Ksh. *kus*; Gār. *kum*; M. *kā*.]

kamān (Leech), a bow (the weapon). [Psht. *kamān*.]

kumār or (Leech) *kumār*, a daughter (L. 56); *ek kharāb kumār*, a bad girl (L. 131). [Kh. *kimēri*, a woman; *kumōru*, a girl; Skr. *kumārī*.]

kimat, price; *lemas shisi dowaḍi rūpai kimat ti*, the price of that is two rupees and a half (L. 232). [Psht. *qimat*.]

kan^a or (Leech) *kaṇ*, an ear (L. 38). [M. *kāṇ*, Gār. *kyan*; Sh. *kūn*; Ksh. *kan*; Av. *karena-*, Skr. *karna-*.]

kana, in *mīkana*, before (L. 90) and *patīkana*, behind (L. 91); *myāna mīkana bo*, walk before me (L. 238); *chāna patīkana kāmik badāna da ē*, whose boy comes behind you (L. 239).

kune or (Leech) *kunnai*, card. nineteen (L. 10).

kand, in *ghwar kand*, thunder (Leech).

kangana, black (Leech); *kangana mīrch*, black pepper (Leech).

kar (L. 74) or (Leech) *khar*, an ass. [Psht. *khar*.]

✓*kar-*, do, make; *ki tānu dōstāna sama khushālī kere*, that I made rejoicings with my own friends (Par. 29); *tānu mālas badmāshī khum chi kere* (*k'r*^a), he wasted his substance in riotous living (Par. 13); *lā saw māl chiz kere*, (when) he had wasted all his substance (Par. 14); *ki chāna māl-maṭā strizī khum chi kere*, (thy son) who wasted thy property on women (Par. 30); *lā māla taksīm kere*, he divided the property (Par. 12); *sure put'r tānu māl jama kere*, the younger son collected his property (Par. 13); *mala rām kere*, the father made compassion (Par. 20); *tānu khushālī lān kere*, they made their rejoicing (Par. 24); *lemas tsir kere*, he asked him (Par. 26); *lās pukhlā kere*, conciliated him (Par. 28).

me brok ditina kere ti, I have made many blows (L. 228).

ao dē kām (? *khām*) *khushālī karēm*, let us eat, let us make rejoicing (Par. 23).

chāna khidmat au da kerem, I am doing thy service (Par. 29).

khushālī karan munāsib wa, it was proper to make rejoicing (Par. 32).

[Psht. *kr*^a. B. Kh. ✓*kor-*, K. ✓*kār-*, G. ✓*ker-*, P. M. Gār. Ksh. ✓*kar-*; Av. ✓*kar-*, Skr. ✓*kr-*.]

kārgḥa (Leech), a crow. [Psht. *qārgḥ*.]

kurku mand (Leech), saffron. [? cf. Psht. *kūrkamān*, turmeric.]

kram, business; *lema-ma kram kharāb ti*, their business is bad (L. 31). [Sh. *krom*, Skr. *karman*-.]

kursi, a chair; *au lema-kursi-ma uthum*, I rise from this chair (L. 82). [Psht. *kursi*.]

kasa in *kasa myāna wā, lā chānam ti*, whatever was mine, that is thine (Par. 31). [B. *kai*, W. *kasu*, G. *ki*.]

kaṭhan (Leech), short.

katari, a razor (Leech); *katāri*, a knife (Leech). [Cf. H. *kaṭārī*, a dagger.]

katēsi, how much?; *chāna kuz^{ra} umar katēsi ti*, how old is thy horse? (L. 221); *lema jaisi Kashmīr katēsi dūr ti*, how far is it from here to Kashmir? (L. 222). Cf. *letik*. [G. *kata*, P. *kau*, Kh. *kamā*, Sh. *kachāk*, Ksh. *kūt*, Gār. *kiti*.]

katisi, how many?; *chāna mala thāna manzum katisi put^{ra} tina*, how many sons are there in thy father's house? (L. 223). Cf. *letik*. [Cf. above.]

kavza (Leech), a hut.

kaza, high (L. 135), tall; adv. up (L. 80); *lema brijasi le kaza ti*, this tower is higher than that (L. 136); *sawa brijan-ma le brij kaza ti*, of all towers that is the highest (L. 137); *lemas spazunsi le ad^{mas} brā kaza ti*, his brother is taller than his sister (L. 231).

kuz^{ra} or (Leech) *kuzrā*, a horse (L. 68, 138); *lema Jaba manzum sarca kuz^{ra} brade tina*, in Jaba all horses are good (L. 140); *chāna kuz^{ra} umar katēsi ti*, how old is thy horse? (L. 221); *le parāna kuz^{ras} zīn myāna thāna manzum*, the saddle of the white horse is in my house (L. 226); *le zīn kuz^{ra} dāk khum thā*, put the saddle on the horse's back (L. 227); *le ādam kuz^{ra} dāka khum spara gā brichat tōna*, he is sitting on a horse under that tree (L. 230). [? Cf. Bur. *haghur*. Cf. the word *barē*, a mare.]

lā, lē, le, this, that, he; *lema, lemo, lemas, lān, le-na, lās, lāsi, lesi, le sām*. For examples of all these forms, see Grammar, pp. 283-4. [Cf. V. *es-le*, he, *mū*, they; P. *hla*, that, *mīs*, of this; Kh. *hamu*, him; Sh. *rō*, he; K. *ele-drūs*, they; Māvchi Bhil, *ēlō*, he.]

lōi, in *lōi zar* (Leech, *luhī zar*), gold (L. 45); see *luhī*.

ladū (Leech), wood. [Psht. *largai*.]

luhī (Leech), red. [Skr. *lōhita*-.]

lakai (Leech), a tail. (Psht. *lakai*.)

lemaji, here; *ao lemaji odaetani narā gam*, I am dying here of hunger (Par. 17). Cf. *lema jaisi*, s.v. *lā* (L. 222).

lon (Leech) salt. [P. *lōn*; Ksh. *lawan*, *lun*; Skr. *lavana*-.]

langā ti, he lives, dwells; *myāna mala lā sūrē thāna manzum brōk umar langā ti*, my father has dwelt for a long time in that small house (L. 233). [Perhaps we should read *lan gā ti*.]

lētik, so many; *lētik sansaragāna chāna khidmat au da kerem*, for so many years I am doing thy service (Par. 29). Cf. *katēsi*, *katisi*. [With *lē-tik*, cf. *le*, and B. *ē-gyak*, W. *i-ti*, G. *a-ta*, Sh. *a-chāk*, Ksh. *yātyun*^a, Gār. *a-tē*.]

ma, from, etc. For examples, see Grammar, p. 274. [Gār. *mā*.]

ma, termination of *lema*, see *lā*.

mā (Leech *mā*), a mother (L. 48). [M. *māhā*, Sh. *mālī*, Ksh. *mōj*^a, Prs. *mādar*, Psht. *mōr*.]

mē, see *ao*.

mū (Leech *mūn*), the face (Leech). [B. *mukā*, Kh. *mukh*, Sh. *mukh*, Ksh. *mōkh*, Skr. *mukha*-. Cf. the following words meaning 'before', B. *pa-myuk*, V. *ti-mikh*, W. *myuk-ne*, Gār. *mūkā*, Sh. *mōcō*, M. *mūthō*.]

magar, but (Par. 29). [Psht. *magar*, *mangar*.]

māhai (Leech), a fish. [Psht. *mahai*.]

mēkha, always (? = *hamēsha*); *tē mēkha mē-kharē wē*, thou wast always with me (Par. 31). [Psht. *hamēsha*.]

mīkana, before (L. 90); *myāna mīkana bo*, walk before me (L. 238); formerly in the past time (L. 187-190). [V. *ti-mikh*. See *mū*.]

mala (Leech, *mhala*), a father (L. 47, *mal*^a; 101, *mala*); *myāna mala lā sūrē thāna manzum brōk umar langā ti*, my father has dwelt for a long life in that small house (L. 233);

mala rām kere, the father made compassion (Par. 20); *mala bīchī*, the father saw (him) (Par. 20); *mala tānu naukarānosi arē*, the father said to his servants (Par. 22); *chāna mala lā breḍa bāsa kukhō*, thy father slaughtered the good calf (Par. 27); *mala gaṇa putrasi jawāb dīta*, the father gave answer to the elder son (Par. 31);

myāna mal^a brōk mazdurāno wāna, of my father there were many servants (Par. 17); *chāna mala thāna manzum*, in thy father's house (L. 223);

sūrē put^r mala dītanās, the younger son said to the father (Par. 12);

mala tarafe ū, he came in the direction of the father (Par. 20);

ai mala, O father! (Par. 12, 18, 21);

mala, fathers (L. 106); *dō mala tīna*, there are two fathers (L. 105);

māla, of fathers (L. 107);

mala-ma, from a father (L. 104);

malas, *le malas gā*, his father (pron. suff.) went (Par. 28) (see Grammar, p. 270);

malas, *le thān malas ti*, that house belongs to the father (L. 102);

malasi, to the father; *le khat malasi dēm*, I give this letter to the father (L. 103); *mē tānu malasi bazam*, I will go to my father (Par. 18); *le malasi jawāb dīta*, he gave answer to the father (Par. 29);

malasi, to fathers (L. 108);

malasi, from fathers; *lema tre bad^ana malasi khabar ut ti*, information has come from the fathers of these three children (L. 109). [M. *mhāla*, Sh. *mālō*. Ksh. *mōl^a*. Sh. *mālō* is the masculine of *mālī*, mother. See *mā*.]

māl, property; cattle (pl.); *sure put^rr tānu māl jama kere*, the younger son collected his property (Par. 13); *lā saw māl chiz kere*, (when) he had wasted all his property (L. 14); *ki chāna māl-maṭa chi kere*, who wasted thy substance (Par. 30).

lā māla taksīm kere, he divided the property (Par. 12); *māla-manzum*, from in the property (Par. 12);

tānu mālas (? pron. suff.) *chi kere*, he wasted his property (Par. 13) (see Grammar, p. 270);

māl (pl.), *le ādam tāna māl tsarū ti*, he is grazing his cattle (L. 229).

[Psht. *māl*, property, cattle.]

mālūch (Leech), cotton. [Psht. *mālūch*.]

mulk, a country.

mulk^a, *le mulk^a manzum ek ad^ama lā khare natī gā*, (?) he took refuge with a man of in that country (Par. 15);

mulke, *le mulke manzum brōk grānī wē*, a great famine became in that country (Par. 14).

mulkasi, *lā bē gā dūr mulkasi*, and he went to a far country (Par. 13). [Psht. *mulk*.]

manas ? married; *myāna trōras put^rr le myāna spazam manas ti*, the son of my uncle is married to my sister (L. 225).

munāsib; *mē sama munāsib nā ti*, it is not proper for me (Par. 19); *masi munāsib nā ti*, it is not proper for me (Par. 21); *khushālī karan munāsib wa*, to do rejoicing was proper (Par. 32). [Psht. *munāsib*.]

manzum, in; from among. For examples, see Grammar, p. 275. [V. *munj*, Ksh. *manz*, Gār. *mē*, M. *maz*, Skr. *madhyē*. Cf. Ksh. *manzum^a*, intermediate.]

✓ *mar*-, die; *mira*, die (impve.) (L. 83); *ao lemaji odastani marā gam*, I die here of hunger (Par. 17); *mura gā wa*, he had died (Par. 24, 32); *ek dēn m'ra gā tē*, a cow has died (L. 83). [Psht. *mī^al*.]

mare (Leech), the neck. [Psht. *marāi*.]

mirch, in *kangana mirch* (Leech), black pepper. [Psht. *mrach*.]

margh, (Leech) *morgħa*, (pl. *margħāna*), a bird (L. 76). [Psht. *margh^a*.]

murgħāwī (Leech), a duck. [Prs. *murgħ-ābī*.]

mrīkht (Leech), sweet. [B. *machī*, Ksh. *myūth^a*, Sh. *mōro*, Skr. *mṛṣṭa*-.]

mās (Leech), meat. [Sh. *mos*, Ksh. *māz*, Skr. *māmsa*-.]

maṭā, in *māl-maṭā*, see *māl*.

mazdūr; *myāna mā^a brōk mazdūrāno wāna*, there were many servants of my father (Par. 17); *tānu mazdūrāno khum mē sama karē*, make me equal among thy servants (Par. 19). [Both Paṣhtō forms.] [Psht. *mazdūr*.]

na, a case-suffix. *putre-na le-na arī*, the son said to him (Par. 21); *breḍa jāmā-na* (? *jāmāna*, pl.) *anā*, bring ye a good garment (Par. 22); *le-na lāsi arī*, he said to him (Par. 27). [V. *pa-nē*, to; W. *ka-ne*, V. *pa-nea*, G. *pere-na*, M. Psht. *na*, from; G. *na*, of; K. *o-na*, in.]

na, interj. no! (L. 99).

na, *nā*, negative; *andarun gāwa ure na wā*, his heart was not for going inside (Par. 28); *lāsi kī nā dita*, no one gave to him (Par. 16); *munāsīb nā tī*, it is not proper (Par. 19, 21); *tē masi tsālē tsindar nā dita*, thou didst not give me a kid (Par. 29); *ao chāna hukum-ma bāhr nā gim*, I did not go outside thy order (Par. 29). [Psht. *na*.]

nab, nine (L. 9 and Leech).

naghāra, kettledrums; *gidān naghāra domāma āwāz ū*, the sound of singing, kettledrums, and drums (Par. 25). [Psht. *naghāra*.]

nākh (Leech), a hoof. [Cf. Psht. *nākhun*, a nail (of finger or toe).]

nukh (Leech), a nail. [Psht. *nūk*.]

nākār (Leech), bad. [Psht. *nākār*, useless; Ksh. *nākāra*, bad.]

naukar, a servant; *ek tānu naukaris ga* (read *gā*) *tī*, he has gone to one his own servant (Par. 26). [Psht. *nōkar*.]

nīl^a, green (Stein). [Sh. *nīlō*, Ksh. *nyūl*^a, Skr. *nīla*-.]

nām, a name; *chāna nām ki tī*, what is thy name? (L. 220). [Psht. *nām*.]

nār (Leech *nār*), fire (L. 65). [Psht. *nār*.]

nas, the nose (L. 34). [Ksh. *nast*, *nas*.]

nast (Stein), *nasth* (Leech), the nose. [P. *nās*, *nāst-am*; Ksh. *nast*, *nas*.]

natī, in *le mulk*^a *manzum ek ad^ama lā khare natī gā*, (?) he took refuge near a man in that country (Par. 15).

nazar, sight; *chāna nazar manzum gunagār bēm*, in thy sight, I am a sinner (Par. 18); so, *chāna nazaram manzum brōk gunagār tīm*, in thy sight I am a great sinner (Par. 21). [Psht. *nazar*.]

pā (Leech), a leg. [Psht. *pā*. [Cf. the next.]

padī, a foot (L. 32); *pade manzum panā tsiya*, put ye shoes (?) a shoe on his feet (?) foot (Par. 22). [W. *pā-pō*; P. *pa*, *pai*; Sh. *pā*; Ksh. *pād*; Av. *pādha*-; Skr. *pāda*-. Cf. the preceding.]

padakakar (Leech), lightning.

pādawān, a herdsman (L. 59). [P. *pādawān*.]

phagḍai (Leech) (? *pagḍai*), a turban. [Psht. *pagrai*.]

phallā (Leech), grain. [? a misprint. cf. Psht. *ghalla*. But, on the other hand, cf. Ksh. *phol*^a, grain.]

phanai, see *panā*.

pukhlā, appeased, conciliated; *lās pukhlā kere*, conciliated him (Par. 28). [Psht. *pakhulā*.]

pakkà (Leech), cooked (Hindōstānī).

pakīr; *le pakīrasi ek āna dē*, give one anna to the faqīr (L. 84). (Afrīdī Psht.)

pālī (Leech), bread.

plan (Leech), broad, fat (adj.). [Psht. *plan*.]

pam (Leech), wool. [Ksh. *phamb*, *pham*.]

panū, shoes (? a shoe); Leech, *phanai*, shoes; *pade manzum panā tsiya*, put ye shoes (? a shoe) on his feet (? foot) (Par. 22). (Psht. *pana*.)

pānu, in *le pānu*, clothe ye him (Par. 22).

pand, distance, journey; *ao az gāna panda-khum gā wāma*, I have walked a long way to-day (L. 224). Cf. *pant*, a road, path (Stein). [Psht. *pand*.]

pondī (Leech), the calf of the leg. [Cf. Psht. *parkai*, the calf; *pundaī* or *pandāī*, the heel.]

pants (L. 5), *pānts* (Leech), five. [B. *puch*, W. *pūch*, V. *uch*, P. *panj*, Gār. *pants*, K. *pōnj*, Kh. *pānj*, Sh. (Puniāli) *push*, Ksh. *pānts*, Gār. *panj*, M. *pāz*, Av. *pancha*-, Skr. *pañchan*-.]

panz bē, a hundred (L. 13).

panzī (L. 10), *panzī* (Leech), fifteen.

pāra, see *da-pāra*, under *da*, of (Psht.).

pōre, ? after; *lā pōre*, ? after that (Par. 14). [Psht. *pōrē*, up to, beyond.]

prēgī, he was sent (Par. 15). [Cf. Psht. *prēgdāl*, to set free.]

prēla, draw thou (water); *kui-ma uwa prēla*, draw water from the well (L. 237).

parāna (Leech, *paranna*), white; *parana* (Leech, *paranna*) *zar*, silver (L. 46); *le parāna kuzras zin*, the saddle of the white horse (L. 226).

pīran (Leech), a coat. [Psht. *pairāhan*.]

pīratha (Leech), thirst.

pas, after; *pas diyan-ma ao gēma*, after beating we went away (L. 178); *tsuk daze pas*, after a few days (Par. 13). [Psht. *pas*.]

pishē, a cat (L. 71). (Psht. *pishō*.)

postakai (Leech), leather (Psht., untanned hide).

patī, after; *lema patī mala tarafe ū*, after that (? this) he came in the direction of his father (Par. 20); *patī-kana*, behind (L. 91); *chāna patī-kana kāmik badāna da ē*, whose boy comes behind thee (L. 239). [W. *pat*, G. Ksh. *pata*, Sh. *phatū*, Gār. *patā*, M. *patō*.]

put^r (Par.), *putr* (L. 55), *putur* (Leech), a son; *kāla mē sama* (or *masi*) *munāsib nā tī ki chāna put^r au dēm*, now for me it is not proper that I may be thy son (Par. 19, 21).

put^r, sg. nom. *le myāna put^r murā gā wa*, this my son had died (Par. 24); *le sār gāna put^r tsakalān manzum wā*, his elder son was in the fields (Par. 25); *lā gāna put^r ghussa khum gā*, that elder son went into anger (Par. 28); *chāna lā put^r ō*, this thy son came (Par. 30); *le bad^ana myānu putr tī*, this child is my son (L. 54);

put^r, subject of trans. verb in past tense. *sūrē put^r mala ditanas*, the younger son said to his father (Par. 12); *sure put^r tānu māl jama kere*, the younger son collected his property (Par. 13);

put^r (obl. sg.); *lema ad^amas put^r khum mē brok ditina kere tina*, I have made many stripes on his son (L. 228).

putre-na le-na arī, the son said to him (Par. 21).

putrasi; *mala gaṇa putrasi jawāb dita*, the father gave answer to his eldest son (Par. 31).

Voc. *ai put^ara*, O son! (Par. 31).

put^ara (pl. nom.); *ek ad^amas do put^ara wāna*, of a certain man there were two sons (Par. 11); *chānā mala thāna manzum katisi put^ara tina*, how many sons are there in your father's house? (L. 223). [B. *puṭr*, W. *piutr*, K. *pūtr*, G. *pult*, Ksh. *puth^ar*, Av. *puthra-*, Skr. *putra-*.]

pyāz (Leech), an onion. [Psht. *piyāz*.]

re, in *grē re ditana*, ? meaning (Par. 17).

rāgha (Leech), a plain. [Cf. Psht. *rāgh*, a meadow.]

rām; *mala rām kere*, the father made compassion (Par. 20). [Cf. Ar. *raḥm*.]

rūn (Leech), the thigh. [Psht. *rūn*.]

rūpai, a rupee; *le rūpai le adamasi dē*, give this rupee to him (L. 234); *lemas shisi dowādī rūpai kimat ti*, the price of that is two rupees and a half (L. 232); *lema-ma lā rūpai achhilo*, take those rupees from him (L. 235). [Psht. *rūpaž*.]

rassai (Leech), a rope. [Psht. *rasaž*.]

rast (sic.) (Leech), true. [Cf. Psht. *rāst*.]

rāt (Leech), night (Hindī, *rāt*).

saba (Stein), to-morrow. [Psht. *sabā*.]

sūdā (Leech), little. [? Psht. *sūda*, abraded. Cf. also *sūra* below.]

shi (Leech, *shai*), a thing; *lemas shisi kimat*, the price of this thing (L. 232). [Psht. *shai*.]

shhal (Leech), cold. [Cf. Ksh. *shēhol*, B. *shile*.]

shalē (Stein), a coat. [? cf. Psht. *shalwār*, trousers, or *shāl*, a shawl.]

shunda (Leech), the lip. [Psht. *shūnḍa*.]

shpūn, a shepherd (L. 59); *wranin khō myāna shpūn bē khō*, ? the food of the sheep (is) also the food of me the shepherd (Par. 16). [Psht. *shpūn*.]

shaitān, a devil (L. 61). [Psht. *shaitān*.]

sama, postpos. with, together with; *tānu dōstāna sama khushālī kerz*, (I) made rejoicing with my friends (Par. 29);

Forming a dative; *mē sama* (or *masi*) *munāsib nū ti*, it is not proper for me (Par. 19, 21);

like, equal to; *tānu mazdūrāno khum mē sama karē*, make me equal among thy servants (Par. 19).

[Cf. Skr. *sama-*, equal; *sam*, with.]

samo, all; forms plural, *mēn samo tre ād^{mo} khārasi da bazam*, we three men all go to town (L. 17). [Cf. Skr. *sama-*, together.]

sūm 1 (Leech), thin.

sūm 2 (Leech), a leek [Cf. Ar. *ṣūm*, Sindhi *thūm*^a, Bal. etc. *thōm*, W. *tum*, garlic.]

sanā (Leech, *sanā*), a dog (L. 70); *chāna sanās dante brōk trighna tina*, the teeth of your dog are very sharp (L. 146); pl. *sanā* (L. 148); *strīza sanā*, a bitch (L. 147); pl. the same (L. 149). [W. *tsū*, K. *shēr*, G. *shunā*, P. *shūring*, Sh. *shū*, Ksh. *hūn*^a, Av. *span-*, Skr. *śun-*.]

sān, ? postpos. of gen.; *le sān gaṇa put^r*, his elder son (Par. 25).

sen (Leech), a bedstead.

sansar, a year; *le myāna dē panzī sansar tē*, the age of my daughter is fifteen years (L. 111); *lētik sansaragāna chāna khidmat au da kerem*, for so many years I do thy service (Par. 29). [Cf. Ar. *san*.]

spoghmai (Leech, *spagmai*), the moon (L. 63). [Psht. *spōgmaī*.]

spansi (Leech), thread. [Psht. *spansai*.]

spāra ga, mounted; *le ādam kuz^{ra} dāka khum spāra ga brichat tōna*, he is seated on the back of a horse under a tree (L. 230). [Psht. *sparēd^{al}*, to ride a horse.]

spāz (so also Leech), a sister (L. 50); *myāna trōras put^r le myāna spazam manas ti*, the son of my uncle is married to my sister (L. 225); *lemas spazunsi le ad^{mas} brā kaza ti*, his brother is taller than his sister (L. 231).

[B. *sus*, V. *siusu*, W. *sōs*, G. *sase*, P. *sāz*, Kh. *ispusār*, Gār. *ishpō*, Sh. *sah*, Skr. *svasār-*.]

sūra (fem. *surē*), young, small. For examples, see Grammar, p. 278. [Cf. P. *suratala*, Sh. *shūō*, *shudar*, Ksh. *shur*^a, a child. Cf. also *sūdū* above.]

surē (Leech *sūri*), sun; *surē*, the sun; *az surē braḍa ti*, to-day the sun is bright (L. 62). [B. *sū*, W. *sōi*, K. *sūri*, G. *suri*, P. *sūr*, M. *swir*, Gār. *sir*, Sh. *sūrē*, Ksh. *sūrē*.]

sat, card. seven (L. 7), (Leech *sath*). [B. *sut*, W. *sōt*, V. *sete*, P. G. K. Sh. Gār. *sat*, Ksh. *sat-*, M. *sāt*, Kh. *sot*.]

sato (Leech), card. seventeen.

satāra, card. seventeen (L. 10).

sathan (Leech), trousers.

strē, a woman; *eka strē tē*, there is one woman (L. 52); *le strē myāna khina tē*, this woman is my wife (L. 53); *braḍa strē*, a good woman (L. 128); *myāna thāna manzum brōk braḍē strē tina* in my house there are many good women (L. 130).

[B. W. *ishtrī*, K. *istri*, P. *shlikā*, Sh. *chèi*, *chèi*, Ksh. *triy*, Wkh. *strēi*, Skr. *strī*.]

stōre, a star; *az brōke store tīna*, to-day there are many stars (L. 64). (Psht. *stōrai*.)

strīza, female, she-; *strīza sanā*, a bitch (L. 147), bitches (L. 149); *ki chāna mālmaṭā strīzī khum chī kere*, who wasted thy substance among women (Par. 30); *strīzy* (Leech), a wife; *strīzy ūkh* (Leech), a she-camel; *strīzy tsālī* (Leech), a she-goat. [Cf. *strē*.]

saw, *sawa*, all. For examples, see Grammar, p. 279. [Ksh. *sōr*°, Skr. *sarva*-.]

sawe (Leech), a hare. [Psht. *sōe* m. *sawa* f.]

sawab, a cause; *ki sawab ti*, why? (L. 94). [Psht. *sabab*.]

tī, verb substantive (L. 158, pres. sg. 3); *tē*, *tīm*, *tīma*, *tīna*, *tīs*, *tīza*. For examples of all these forms, see Grammar, pp. 287, 292, and 294.

[G. *thana*, Gār. M. *thū*, he is. Cf. Skr. *sthita*-.]

to, *tu*, *te*, *tē*, thou; *tā*, *tao*, *chāna*, *chānam*. For examples of all these forms, see Grammar, p. 281.

[B. W. K. G. Kh. Sh. *tu*, Gār. M. *tū*, P. *tō*, Ksh. *ts^h*, thou; Ksh. *chyón*°, Gār. *chhā*, thy.]

thā, put thou; *le zīn kuz^{ra} dāk khum thā*, put the saddle on the horse's back (L. 227).

[Sh. *tam*, I do; Ksh. *thāwun*, to place; Skr. $\sqrt{dhā}$ -, or $\sqrt{sthāp}$ -, put.]

thān, a house (L. 67); *chāna thān braḍa ti*, thy house is good (L. 22); *lemo thān sura ti*, his house is small (L. 28); *le thān malas ti*, this is the house of the father (L. 102); *braḍa adamas thān bōgha ti*, the house of a good man is near (L. 120);

thāna; *myāna thāna manzum brōk braḍē strē tīna*, there are many good women in my house (L. 130); *chāna mala thāna manzum*, in thy father's house (L. 223); *myāna thāna manzum*, in my house (L. 226); *myāna thāna-ma chāna thān braḍa ti*, thy house is better than mine (L. 133).

thānasi; *khā thānasi bōgha ō*, when he came near the house (Par. 25); *au az thānasi ēma*, I come to the house to-day (L. 80);

thānān; *sawa thānān-ma chāna thān braḍa ti*, thy house is better than all houses (L. 134).

[Psht., Lnd. *thān*, a cattle-stall; Skr. *sthāna*-.]

tekai (Leech), a scabbard. [Psht. *tēkai*.]

taksīm, partition; *lā māla taksīm kere*, he divided the property (Par. 12). (Psht. *taqsīm*.)

tānu, own (=Hindi *apnā*). For examples, see Grammar, p. 286.

[W. G. *tanu*, Gār. *tanī*, own; P. *tanik*, Kh. *tan*, M. *tā*, Sh. *tomō*, Ksh. *pāna*, self; Skr. *ātman*-, self.]

tōna, under; *le ādam kuz^{ra} dāka khum spāra ga brichat tōna*, he is seated on a horse under a tree (L. 230).

tandr (Leech), a thunderbolt. [Psht. *tandar*.]

tandrai (Leech), a mouse.

tre, trā, three (L. 3); *tre dē*, three daughters (L. 115); *tre bē*, sixty (L. 12); *tre bian dah*, seventy (L. 12).

[B. K. *treh*, W. *trē*, Sh. *chēi*, P. *hlē*, G. *thlē*, Kh. *troi*, Ksh. *tr^h*.]

tre (Leech), salt.

tro, thirteen (L. 10; so Leech).

✓*tar-*; *tare*, bind thou; *dāma khum tare*, bind (him) with a rope (L. 236).

[Psht. *tar^{al}*.]

taraf, direction; *mala tarafe ū*, he came in the direction of his father (Par. 20).

[Psht. *taraf*.]

trighna, sharp; *chāna sanās dante brōk trighna tēna*, your dog's teeth are very sharp (L. 146). [Cf. Psht. *trikh*, bitter; but Skr. *tīkshṇa*-, sharp.]

trikht (Leech), bitter. [Psht. *trikh*.]

trōr, an uncle; *myāna trōras put^r*, the son of my uncle (L. 225). [Cf. Psht. *trōr*, an aunt; but *trah*, an uncle. Possibly there is a mistake in the original.]

tarwalī (Leech), a sword. [Cf. H. *talwār*, *tarwār*; Psht. *tūra*.]

tattā (Leech), hot. [H. *tāt*; cf. Psht. *tōd*.]

tsabar (Leech), cloth [? misprint for *tsadar*; cf. Psht. *tsādar*.]

tsauda, fourteen (L. 10). Leech, *tsondā*.

tsuk (Leech), little; *tsuk^a daze pas*, after a few days (Par. 13). [Cf. Psht. *tsō*.]

tsakal (?), a field; *le sān gāṇa put^r tsakalān manzum wā*, his eldest son was in the fields (Par. 25); *le adam tānu tsakalānsi prēgē*, that man sent (him) to his fields (Par. 15).

tsukzara, but (L. 96).

tsālī, a she-goat (L. 151); pl. *tsālē* (L. 152); *tsālī-tsindar*, a kid (Par. 29); *strīzy tsālī* (Leech), a she-goat. [Cf. Psht. *chēlai*, Gār. *chēl*, M. *sāl*.]

tsimbar (Leech *tsímbar*), iron (L. 44). [Bur. *chōmar*.]

tsinda, a kid (L. 151); cf. *tsālī-tsindar*, s. v. *tsālī*; *bīra tsinda* (Leech), a he-goat. [? Cf. B. *chō*, W. *chū*.]

tsondā (Leech), see *tsauda*.

tsindar, see *tsālī* and *tsinda*.

tsanzuwā, a cock (the bird) (L. 72).

✓*tsar-*, graze (cattle); *le adam prēgē wrani tsarai*, that man sent him to feed sheep (Par. 15); *le ādam tāna* (? *tānu*) *māl brekhta khāra khum tsarū ti*, he is grazing his cattle on the top of the hill (L. 229). [Psht. *tsaraw^l*, to graze; W. K. Gār. Sh. ✓*char-*, Ksh. ✓*tsār-*, M. ✓*sār-*, Av. Skr. ✓*char-*.]

tsīr, asking; *lemas tsīr kere*, he asked (Par. 26).

tsor (Leech), four, see *tsawor*.

tsat (Leech), the back. [Cf. Psht. *tsaf*, the nape of the neck.]

tsawor, four (Leech *tsor*) (L. 4); *tsawor bē*, eighty (L. 12); *tsawor biau dah*, ninety (L. 12).

[B. *shto*, W. *shtā*, P. Sh. *chār*, G. *chūr*, Kh. Gār. *chōr*, Ksh. *tsōr*, M. *saūr*, K. *chau*, Av. *chathwārō*, Skr. *chatur*-.]

tsiya, put ye; *lema asto manzum angur tsiya*, *pade manzum panā tsiya*, put ye a ring on his hand, put ye shoes on his feet (Par. 22).

[Cf. G. *antsau*, put ye.]

wā, *wā*, he was, *we*, *wāma*, *wāna*, *wāz*, *wāza*. For examples of all these forms, see Grammar, pp. 288 and 295.

[Cf. Psht. *wu*, he was.]

wā (Leech), water. See *uwā*.

wakt; *mē suro wāma lema wakta khum*, I was small at that time (L. 162); *to suro wāz jango wakta manzum*, at the time of fighting thou wast small (L. 163); *le adam dūr wa galiz wakta khum*, that man was away at the time of theft (L. 164). [Psht. *waqt*.]

wāma, see *wa*.

wrani, sheep; *prēgī wrani tsarai*, sent (him) to feed sheep (Par. 15); *wranin khō*, ? the food of the sheep (Par. 16).

[Cf. Psht. *wrai*, a lamb; Or. *wrai*, a sheep.]

wrinde or *urinde*, in *asta wrinde (urinde)*, ? he embraced (Par. 20).

waza, adv. down (L. 88); postpos. under, *brichat waza*, under a tree (L. 230).

wāz, *wāza*, see *wa*.

yaya (Leech), a bear (the animal). [Cf. Psht. *yag*, a bear, *yaga*, a she-bear. Possibly Leech's *yaya* is a misprint.]

zabzala (Leech), an earthquake. (Psht. *zalzala*. Possibly Leech's word is a misprint.)

zhibba (Leech), the tongue. [Psht. *zhiba*.]

zam (in *bazam*), see ✓ *bo*.

zemīndār, a cultivator (L. 58). [Psht.]

zmarrai (Leech), a tiger. [Psht. *zmarai*.]

zīn, a saddle; *le parāna kuz^rras zīn myāna thāna manzum*, the saddle of the white horse (is) in my house (L. 226); *le zīn kuz^rra dāk khum thā*, put the saddle on the horse's back (L. 227). [Psht. *zīn*.]

zav (Leech), barley. [Cf. H. *jau*; Skr. *yava*-.]

zyad (Leech), yellow; brass. (Cf. Psht. *ziyar*, with both meanings.)

GILGITI SHINĀ.

Although the account of Shinā given in the pages of the Survey was only published in 1919, it had been prepared several years previously. It was based on materials which, while they were the best available at the time, were not always accurate or complete. During the interval that elapsed between its preparation and its publication no further materials came within my reach, but since then the language has been made the object of serious and detailed study by Lieutenant-Colonel D. L. R. Lorimer, C.I.E., who was Political Agent at Gilgit from 1920 to 1924¹. To him I owe a heavy debt of gratitude for a quantity of material (including a complete grammar) which he has from time to time most kindly sent me. These necessitated such heavy corrections in the pages of the Survey devoted to Gilgiti Shinā, that I have thought it best to rewrite the whole section as follows. In these pages, the numerous examples have been taken bodily from Colonel Lorimer's grammar, and I would here express my thanks for his permission to utilize them in this manner:—

I. PRONUNCIATION.—Colonel Lorimer wrote his Shinā words according to the system of spelling introduced by the International Phonetic Association. This is far more accurate than the somewhat rough and ready system followed in the Survey, and takes account of minute differences of sound which hitherto I have not attempted to distinguish. For the sake of uniformity, I have transliterated his Shinā words into the Survey system, and in so doing, I have more than once been compelled to represent two different letters of his transcription by one letter in mine². If, in doing this, some of my spellings are inaccurate, it will be understood that the fault is mine, not his. With this understanding I proceed to explain the pronunciation of Shinā.

Besides the usual pairs of vowels, *a* (the sound of which fluctuates between that of the *a* in 'America', and that of the *u* in 'but') and *ā*, *e* and *ē*, *o* and *ō*, *u* and *ū* we have also *à* and *è*. The letter *à* indicates the sound of the *a* in the German word 'Mann', or the short sound corresponding to the long *a* in 'father', and *è* that of *è* in the French word 'père'. These two vowels are often uncertain in their pronunciation. The vowel *à* is quite often sounded as *a*, as in *àsh* or *ash*, today; and *è* is often sounded as *e*, as in *chèi*. or *chei*, a woman; *jàbè-jo*, from property, but *jap* (nom. sing.), property. In the following pages I shall mark *à* and *è* only when I am certain that these sounds are correct. In other cases, I shall write *a* and *e*. In addition to these I represent by *ă* the sound of the *a* in 'cat', which is occasionally heard, as, for instance, in the word *ăchhi* or *achhi*, an eye. Similarly *ō* represents the sound of the *o* in 'on', which occurs in *chōn*, leisure, and a few other words. There are several diphthongs. The commonest is *ai*, which has nearly the sound of *y* in 'fly'. It is sometimes pronounced like *ei*, and is so written by some authorities on the language. General Biddulph represents it by *eyi*. The diphthong *au* is sounded like the *ow* of 'how'. The letters *ōi* in *ōiki*, the termination of the infinitive,

¹ While these pages were passing through the press, there was published Dr. T. Grahame Bailey's very full and complete 'Grammar of the Shina (Shinā) Language', (London, Royal Asiatic Society, 1924). Unfortunately its appearance was too late for me to make use of it.

² For instance, I represent both Colonel Lorimer's *ə* and his *Δ* by *a*, his *i* and his *ı* by *i*, and his *u* and his *γ* by *u*.

do not indicate a diphthong, the two vowels being separately sounded, as in *thōiki*, pronounced *thō-iki*, to do.

The sounds represented by the letters *u* and *o* are often interchanged. Thus, *dēgu* or *dēgo*, he gave. Final vowels, especially *è* and *e*, are very commonly elided. Thus, *masè*, *mase*, or *mas*, by me; *āshpusè* or *āshpus*, the horse; *guṭero*, *guṭeru*, or *guṭer*, in a house; *dijètè*, *dijète*, or *dijèt*, to a daughter.

As regards consonants, the most prominent peculiarity is the frequency with which sounds which in India proper are aspirated are here aspirated so slightly that the fact is by some writers not shown in writing. Examples are *mukh* (sometimes written *muk*), a face, Hindōstānī *mukh*; *khōiki* (sometimes written *kōiki*), to eat, H. *khānā*; *khojōiki* (*kojōiki*), to ask, H. *khōjnā*, to seek; *likhōiki* (*likōiki*), H. *likhnā*, to write; *thōiki* (*tōiki*), to do; *sā'ti*, with, H. *sāth*. The sonant consonants *g*, *j*, *ḍ*, *d*, and *b* are indeed, as in other Dardic languages, never aspirated at all. Thus, *bāgo*, a share, H. *bhāg*; *majā*, among, H. *mājh*.

The fricative sound *f* is not uncommon, as in *bafūr*, ibex-down; *lafā*, a pace; *nifaiōiki*, to arrive. It does not appear to be used as an initial, but the aspirate *ph* is generally sounded like *f* with or without a slight *p*-sound preceding it, as in *ṽfāl* (or *fāl*) *thōiki*, to throw; *ṽfatū* (or *fatu*), afterwards; *ṽfunar*, a flower; *ṽfitik*, vexed, and many others. The sound of the *th* of 'think' does not occur at all, and that of 'this,' as well as the *kh* and *gh* corresponding to the Arabic *خ* and *غ*, respectively, do not occur except in borrowed words.

There are four true cerebral sounds in Shinā. These are represented by *sh*, *ch*, *j* (or *zh*), and *ḍ* (or *r*). The letter *sh* is sounded like a strong Indian cerebral *श* *sha*, and similarly *ḍ* (or *r*) is sounded nearly as in India. The letters *ch* and *j* are sounded by attempting to pronounce *ch* and *j*, respectively, with the tip of the tongue curled back so as to come in contact with the highest part of the roof of the mouth. Former writers often represented *ch* by *tr* and *j* by *jr*, and accordingly these sounds will often be found so spelt in the specimens of Shinā dialects on pp. 186ff. of Vol. VIII, Pt. ii. But such signs in no way represent the sounds of these letters, which are pure cerebrals. When the letter *n* is in close proximity to a cerebral letter, it itself becomes cerebralized to *ṇ*, and is then pronounced as in North-West India. Such a cerebralization occurs in the word 'Shinā' itself, in which *n* has become *ṇ* owing to the proximity of the true cerebral *sh*.

The sounds represented by the letters *t* and *d* are not dental, as in India, but are alveolar, as in English. In some words these sounds are post-alveolar, but, in such cases, they are certainly not cerebral. Natives of India, when transcribing these post-alveolars, write them as cerebrals. In the cases in which I have noted them, I have indicated the sound by putting a dot under them, as in *ātēgo*, he brought; *baḍo* or *baṛo*, great; but it must not therefore be assumed that the sound is so distinctly cerebral as in India proper. Judging from the specimens received by me, when an Indian tries to write Shinā in the Persian alphabet he is uncertain as to how he should represent the sounds of these Shinā post-alveolars, sometimes writing them as dentals and sometimes as cerebrals. For instance a writer in transcribing a Shinā passage for me had to write the word *gōṭ*, a house, on two occasions. In one place he wrote *گوت* and in the other *گوت*. This was quite natural, as no Indian alphabet has any character

accurately indicating these alveolar and post-alveolar sounds. In the same way it will be found that other authorities differ as to whether, *e.g.*, a word should be written with *t* or *d* or with *ṭ* or *ḍ*.

B usually becomes *p*, when it finds itself at the end of a word. Thus the word for 'property' in the Parable is **jab*-, with an ablative singular *jābè-jo*. But the nominative singular is *jap*, not *jab*, because the *b* is here final. So, the *Shinā* word corresponding to *ṣāhib*, is *sāip*, not *sāib*. Similarly *d*, when final, becomes *t*. Thus we have a genitive *dud-è*, of milk, but the nominative singular is *dut*, not *dud*.

II. **NOUNS.**—*Gender.*—There are two genders, masculine and feminine. Many masculine nouns end in *-o*, the corresponding feminine termination being *-i*. Thus, *pōcho*, a grandson; *pōchī*, a granddaughter; *dādo*, a grandfather; *dādī*, a grandmother; *mālo*, a father; *mālī*, a mother (also used to mean 'a mother's sister'). Sex is, however, generally indicated by different words, as in *bābo*, a father; *āje* and *mā*, a mother; *āshpo*, a horse; *bām*, a mare; *dōno*, a bull; *gāo*, a cow; *jā*, a brother; *sā*, a sister; and so on. Some nouns indicate gender by prefixing *bīro*, male, and *sonchī*, female. Thus, *bīro shū*, a dog; *sonchī shū*, a bitch.

Number.—The nominative plural of most nouns ending in a vowel ends in *è*. Some nouns ending in a consonant, especially when feminine, form their plural in *è*, but others, especially masculines, in *ī*.

Many nouns of relationship form their plurals in *-ārè* or *-rè*. Thus,—

	Plural.
<i>jā</i> , a brother.	<i>jārè</i> .
<i>sā</i> , a sister.	<i>saiārè</i> or <i>sēārè</i> .
<i>dī</i> , a daughter.	<i>dijārè</i> or <i>dizhārè</i> .
<i>gyèn</i> or <i>grèn</i> , a wife.	<i>gyinārè</i> or <i>grinārè</i> .
<i>dādī</i> , a grandmother.	<i>dadiārè</i> or <i>dadārè</i> .
<i>shāsh</i> , a mother-in-law.	<i>shashārè</i> .
<i>ʔfīpī</i> , a paternal aunt.	<i>ʔfapiārè</i> .
<i>nūsh</i> , a daughter-in-law.	<i>nūjārè</i> .
<i>jājè</i> , a sister-in-law.	<i>jājārè</i> .

The word *pūch*, a son, is quite irregular, its plural being *dārè*. Other irregular plurals are:—

	Plural.
<i>hanè</i> , an egg.	<i>hanèjè</i> .
<i>dala</i> , a water-channel.	<i>dalèjè</i> or <i>daljè</i> .
<i>bār</i> , a load.	<i>berī</i> .
<i>dar</i> , a door.	<i>dārī</i> .
<i>barāo</i> , a husband.	<i>berākul</i> .
<i>barīsh</i> , a year.	<i>barījī</i> .
<i>shū</i> , a dog.	<i>shūī</i> or <i>shūwī</i> .

Case.—There are very few variations in the declension of nouns, although the different terminations have each variant forms. The case terminations are as follows. The Accusative is the same in form as the Nominative:—

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. and Acc. ..., <i>o, u</i> .	- <i>ə, -i</i> (see above).
Agent. - <i>s(ə)</i> .	- <i>s(ə)</i> .
Oblique. - <i>ə</i> .	- <i>o, -u</i> .
Gen. - <i>ə</i> .	- <i>o, -u</i> .
Dat. - <i>t(ə)</i> .	- <i>t(ə)</i> .
Abl. - <i>jo, -ju</i> .	- <i>jo, -ju</i> .
Loc. I. - <i>r(o)</i> .	- <i>r(o)</i> .
Loc. II. - <i>ch, -j</i> .	- <i>ch, -j</i> .

It will be seen that there are several forms for each case. In each instance the most usual form is given first. The use of the others depends partly on the personal equation of the speaker, and partly on the swing of the sentence; but in the nominative singular, while many nouns take *o* or *i*, others have no termination at all. When a termination ends in *ə*, *e* is often substituted.

In the terminations -*s(ə)* of the Agent, -*t(ə)* of the Dative, and -*r(o)* of the Locative I., the final *e* or *o* is frequently dropped, so that the usual terminations are -*s*, -*t*, and -*r*, respectively. So, the final -*ə* or *e* of the Oblique singular is often omitted.

The termination of the Agent case is added to the Nominative. The Oblique case is really only the genitive put to a special use. The terminations of the Dative and Ablative are added to the Oblique Case, so that they usually appear as -*ət* and -*əjo*, respectively, in the singular, and as -*ot* (or -*ut*) and -*ojo*, respectively, in the plural. The Locative I. case takes either *ə* or *a* in the singular, and usually *u* in the plural, so that we get -*ər* or -*ar* for the singular, and -*ur* for the plural. The Locative II. generally takes *i* in the singular, so that we get -*ich* or -*ij*. In the plural the termination is added to the oblique case, so that we get -*och, -oj, -uch, -uj*.

The Locative I. has the meaning of 'in,' and the Locative II. has the meaning of 'on', with, of course, in each case derivative meanings.

It will be remembered that the vowels *o* and *u* are often interchanged. We have an example of this in the word *gōt*, a house, which becomes *guṭ*- in all cases except the nominative-accusative and agent singular. In other respects it is regular. Thus:—

Singular.	Plural.
Nom.-Acc. <i>gōt</i> , a house.	<i>guṭi</i> , houses.
Agent. <i>goṭsə</i> , a house.	<i>guṭis</i> , houses.
Oblique. <i>guṭə</i> .	<i>guṭo</i> .
Genitive. <i>guṭə</i> , of a house.	<i>guṭo</i> , of houses.
Dative. <i>guṭət</i> , to a house.	<i>guṭut</i> , to houses.
Ablative. <i>guṭəjo</i> , from a house.	<i>guṭujo</i> , from houses.
Locative I. <i>guṭər</i> , in a house.	<i>guṭur</i> , in houses.
Locative II. <i>guṭich</i> , on a house.	<i>guṭuj</i> , on houses.

In the above I have given only the most commonly used forms. The other terminations given above can also be used.

If a noun ends in *o*, there are a few irregularities. Thus :—

Nom.-Acc.	<i>manūjo</i> , a man.	<i>manūjè</i> , men.
Agent.	<i>manūjus</i> , a man.	<i>manūjès</i> , men.
Oblique.	<i>manūjè</i> .	<i>manūjo</i> , <i>manūju</i> .
Genitive.	<i>manūjè</i> , of a man.	<i>manūjo</i> , of men.
Dative.	<i>manūjèt</i> , to a man.	<i>manūjot</i> , <i>manūjut</i> , to men.
Ablative.	<i>manūjèjo</i> , from a man.	<i>manūjojo</i> , <i>manūjujo</i> , from men.
Locative I.	<i>manūjèr</i> , in a man.	<i>manūjur</i> , in men.
Locative II.	<i>manūjich</i> , on a man.	<i>manūjoj</i> , <i>manūjuj</i> , on men.

The following are examples of other nouns in the nominative and oblique cases. It will be observed that some present slight irregularities.

Singular.		Plural.	
Nominative.	Oblique.	Nominative.	Oblique.
<i>sà</i> , a sister, f.	<i>saiè</i>	<i>saiārè</i>	<i>saiāro</i> .
<i>jā</i> , a brother, m.	<i>jawè</i>	<i>jārè</i>	<i>jāro</i> .
(And so other nouns of relation in the plural as described above.)			
<i>gà</i> , a valley-river, m.	<i>gaiè</i>	<i>gaiè</i>	<i>gaiyo</i> .
<i>bādshā</i> , a king, m.	(gen.) <i>bādshāè</i> (but dat. <i>bādshāt</i>)	<i>bādshaiè</i>	<i>bādshāo</i> .
<i>pā</i> , a foot, m.	<i>pāè</i>	<i>paiè</i>	<i>pāwo</i> .
(There are two different declensions of nouns in <i>ā</i> .)			
<i>bālī</i> , rope, f.	<i>bālī</i>	<i>bālè</i>	<i>bālyo</i> .
<i>tārī</i> , a polo-ball, f.	<i>tārī</i>	<i>tarèè</i>	<i>tarīo</i> .
(There are also two declensions of nouns in <i>ī</i> .)			
<i>mūlaiī</i> , a girl, f.	<i>mūlaiè</i>	<i>mūlaiè</i>	<i>mūlāio</i> .
<i>dī</i> , a daughter, f.	<i>dījè</i>	<i>dījārè</i>	<i>dījāro</i> .
(See the nouns of relationship above for the plural.)			
<i>ʿfīchū</i> , a mosquito.	<i>ʿfīchè</i>	<i>ʿfīchè</i>	<i>ʿfīchō</i> .
<i>darū</i> , big game.	<i>darūè</i>
(There are also two declensions of nouns in <i>ū</i> .)			
<i>sū</i> , a needle, f.	<i>sūè</i>	<i>sūè</i>	<i>sūo</i> .
<i>shū</i> , a dog, m.	<i>shūè</i>	<i>shūwī</i> or <i>shūī</i>	<i>shūo</i> .
<i>sāo</i> , a bridge.	<i>sāwè</i>	<i>sauwè</i>	<i>sauwo</i> .
<i>barāo</i> , a husband, m.	<i>berāwè</i>	<i>berākul</i>	<i>berākulo</i> .

(This word is irregular in both numbers.)

Most nouns ending in consonants are regular, such as :—

<i>mārōch</i> , a mulberry, f.	<i>mārōchè</i>	<i>mārōchè</i>	<i>mārōcho</i> .
<i>ʿfunar</i> , a flower, m.	<i>ʿfunarè</i>	<i>ʿfunarè</i>	<i>ʿfunaro</i> .

Irregular is :—

<i>dar</i> , a door.	<i>dārè</i>	<i>dārī</i>	<i>dāro</i> .
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See also the irregular plurals given above, on p. 330.

We now proceed to deal with the various cases in greater detail.

The *Accusative* is always the same in form as the nominative. This gives rise to no difficulties when a noun in the accusative is the object of a transitive verb, for, in that case, the subject is always put into the case of the Agent. Examples are:—

miṣṭhṭe miṣṭhṭe ʔfunarē Yūsufṭ dēnen, (they) give fine flowers of many kinds to Joseph.

mas (agent case) *taī dī tōm pūchṭṭ bēchumus*, I want your daughter (as a wife) for my son.

The *Agent* case¹ plays a more important part in Shinā than in Indo-Aryan languages. In them the subject of a transitive verb is put into the agent case only when the verb is in one of the tenses derived from the past participle. In Gilgiti Shinā,² on the contrary, the subject of a transitive verb is put into the agent case in whatever tense (even the present or future) that the verb may be. In this respect, Shinā agrees with the Tibetan spoken to its east. But, assuming that this case in Shinā is an agent, as in India proper (which is not yet proved), all memory of the fact seems to have disappeared, and, so far as meaning goes, it is treated as a nominative, and the verb agrees with it in gender, number, and person, and is not put into the third person as in India. Thus, we have *mas damus*, I give; *tus dēino*, thou givest; *bādshās dēin*, the king gives; *sūs dīn*, the sister gives; and so on. The termination of this case is *-sē*, *-se*, or *-s*. The last is only used when the nominative ends in a vowel. Thus, we have *pūchṭsē*, not *pūchṭs*, from *pūchṭ*, a son. But, in the plural, as the nominative *dārē* ends as a vowel, we may have *dārēsē*, *dārēse*, or *dārēs*.

This case is used not only with the finite tenses of a verb, but also with participles and other non-finite forms. Thus:—

khūksē khē, *fat thūtuk khē tushum-sik*, *kōs rēsṭṭ nēi dēinis*, 'the pig(s) having eaten, I eating what-is-left-over would be satisfied,' (and) no one used to give to him.

The *Genitive* singular is given above as ending in *-ē* or *-e*, as in *guṭṭē* (or *guṭṭe*), of a house; but this termination varies with different speakers. Sometimes it is heard ending in *-ēi*, *-ēi*, or *-aii*, or in various intermediate sounds. Examples are:—

guṭṭē kūṭ, the wall of the house.

guṭṭer shēō āshpēi tīlēn han, in the house is the saddle of the white horse.

hētṭē ēk hētṭewālē-jo, from a shopkeeper of the village.

The *Dative* is formed by adding *-ṭē* or *-ṭe*, usually reduced to *ṭ*, to the oblique case. Thus, *guṭṭṭē* or *guṭṭṭ*, to the house; *guṭṭṭṭē* or *guṭṭṭ*, to the houses. So:—

chuno pūchṭsē bābṭṭ rēgu, the younger son said to the father.

dūr kūyēkṭṭṭē gōu, he went to a far country.

The *Ablative* is formed by adding *jo* or *ju* to the oblique case. Thus:—*daljē-jo waii nikhalē*, draw water from the irrigation channel. So *saiē-jo jigū*, taller than the sister; *hētṭewālē-jo*, (bought) from a shopkeeper; *shikārē-jo fatu*, behind the fort.

¹ I have, in the above paradigm, given an agent case to *gōṭ*, a house. This form, in the instance of this word, is necessarily hypothetical; for 'house' can hardly be the subject of a transitive verb.

² In the Shinā of Astōr, Gurez, Drās, and Dāh-Hanu, and, to a certain extent, in that of Chilas, there are two agent cases. One is used as in Gilgiti Shinā, but only for the subject of a verb in a tense not formed from the past participle. The other is used for the subject of a verb in a tense formed from the past participle. The use, therefore, of this second form of the agent case is more like the use of the agent case in Hindōstānī and other Indian languages. See Vol. VIII, Pt. ii, pp. 187 and 211.

The *First Locative* is formed by adding *ro* as explained on p. 331. The final vowel is usually dropped, so that the termination is generally *-ər* or *-ar* in the singular, and *-ur* in the plural. This termination is probably a contraction of the postposition *aru* or *àru*, in, inside. Thus, *guṭè-ro* or *guṭè-r*, or *guṭar*, in the house; *guṭu-r*, in the houses. So:—

ē kūyèr kūri kōner pōlo, in that country there arose a violent famine.

anu shakar waiur bilōkun, this sugar is to be melted in water.

anusè aḥhiur fuk pōlun, he has cataract in his eyes.

The *Second Locative* is indicated by the termination *-j* or *-ch*. It is usually preceded by *i* in the singular, and by *u* or *o* in the plural. Thus:—

chīshè cherūj (nom. *cherū*) *gyē*, having gone up on to the top of the mountain.

āshpich fāl bigas, I mounted the horse.

āshpich tīlèn dē, put the saddle on the horse.

sumich fat han, it is lying on the ground.

bādshāè hukemich, on the king's command.

This termination is probably a contraction of the postposition, *ajè* (see below), but is sometimes used with it. Thus we may have *mèḥhich* or *mèḥhich ajè* or *mèḥh ajè*, all meaning 'on the table,' much as we should say 'up on the table.' Similarly, *tēshij ajè*, on the roof.

The *Suffix of Unity*. If *k* is added to a noun, it gives the force of an indefinite article. It is generally preceded by the vowel *è*, but if the noun ends in *o*, this is simply changed to *u*. The noun with this suffix is then declined like an ordinary noun ending in a consonant. Thus, *kūi*, country, *kūyèk* (for *kūièk*), a country, *kūyèkè*, of a country, *dūr kūyèkèṭ gōu*, he went to a far country. The noun may also be preceded by the indefinite pronoun *ko*, some, or by the numeral *èk*, one, as in *manūjo*, man; *manūjuk*, a man; *ko manūjakaii* (or *èk mushākè*) *dū dārè àsil*, of a certain man there were two sons. As another example of a noun ending in *o*, we may take *āshpo*, horse; *āshpuk*, a horse. This *k* sometimes has the force of the definite article, as in *mushà-k*, the man; *thītu-k*, the thing done.

This suffix is not used only with nouns substantive. It is found added to the indefinite pronoun *ko*, anyone, whoever, as in *kouk*. It probably also accounts for the final *k* in *jèk*, anything, something, and is even attached to the verb *han*, is, in the phrase *mai jek hanuk ô thaii akī han*, whatever is mine is thine.

It is sometimes used with nouns in the plural, and then indicates a group or body, as in *du shalak shadari āshpār*, (a body of) two hundred mounted followers. Here the suffix is added to *shal*, a hundred. Similarly, we have *daièk*, a decade, and *maiārūk*, a single game animal, but *maiārèk*, a herd of such animals.

Other case-relations are indicated by postpositions, of which the following are the principal:—

ajè or *aji*, on, upon, above. It is added to the oblique case, but the final vowel of this is usually elided. Thus, *thai kalam mèḥh' aji fat han*, thy pen is lying on the table. As pointed out above, this postposition is often used in conjunction with the second locative.

gī, *gē*, *gini*, or *gini*, by means of, with (in an instrumental sense). It is used with the accusative, which, as we have seen, is the same in form as the

nominative. Thus, *charūṭus ajōni chēlak-gī mā sharminḍa tharēgo*, the thief has made me ashamed by an extraordinary trick; *sūnḥo hūwo-gī*, with a sincere heart; *mas tu jūk-gini shīdam*, I will beat you with a stick; *tsirao-gini jēkur thōiki*, to do the hair with a razor, i.e. to shave.

kach or *kachi*, near. It takes the oblique case, and closely corresponds in its use to the Hindi *pās*. Thus, *ēk mās tom jamāatē-kach Haiabān baiyēn*, Haiabān remains with his wife for a month; *uthēi tom mālē kachi bujum*, having arisen, I will go near my father.

kār, *kārṭē*, *kāryo*, or *kāri*, for, for the sake of. It takes the oblique case, and corresponds to the Hindōstānī (*kē*) *wāstē*. Thus, *khūki charerōikē-kār*, (sent him) to feed swine; *anu sababē-kār*, for this reason; *anēsē-kāri*, on this account. With this postposition, the final vowel of the oblique case is usually indistinctly pronounced, and may sound as *a* or *i*, as in *wēa-kār gōun*, he has gone for water; *anu kōm siḥōiki-kār mas mash thamus*, I am making practice in order to learn this work.

kir, beneath, below, under; *kirṭē*, to below; *kiro* or *kīro*, from under. Both these take the oblique case. Thus, *o tumē-kir*, under that tree; *jundēk batē-kīro nikhāto*, a snake came out from under the stone.

majā (stress accent on the final syllable), in the middle, between, in; *majā-jo* or *majnē-jo*, from among, from in. These take the oblique case, but the final vowel *ē* of that case is apt to be sounded as *a*. Thus, *Nagir bodo ʔfatī gāēkē-majā han*, Nagir is (situated) in a very narrow valley; *sandūkē majnē-jo māi pēzār nikhālē*, get my shoes out of the box.

muḥhō, before, in front of, ahead of (both of time and place). Except as stated below, it takes the ablative, as in *ma-jo muḥho wato*, he came before me; *ārū waiōikē-ju muḥho dārē-jē dang dang thē*, before coming in knock at the door. When the sense is 'in front of,' i.e. 'in or into the presence of' (equivalent to the Hindōstānī *sāmnē*), it takes the oblique case, as in *ma-muḥho wato*, he came before me, i.e. into my presence.

ʔfatū or *fatū*, after, behind (both of time and place). It usually takes the ablative, but sometimes the oblique. Thus, *kēsē shūo tu-jo ʔfatū wāan*, whose boy comes behind thee?; *āpē dēzē-jo ʔfatū*, after a few days.

sāʔtī, *sāatī*, or *sāʔtī*, with, in company with. It takes the oblique case, but the final vowel *ē* of that case often tends to become *o*. Thus, *ma-sāʔtī wā*, come with me; *ko āshtōn lōlyo āshpo-sāʔtī yēr gōun*, which groom has gone on with the chestnut horse?

In addition to the *Instrumental* formed by adding *gi* or *gini*, etc., a few nouns form an instrumental with the aid of the suffixes *-o* for the singular and *-ā* for the plural. Thus, *ro Mīr Sāipē shadarē hatē-jo turo* (or *turiā*) *shīdītun*, he has been beaten by the Mīr Sāhib's servant with a whip (or with whips). This form occurs only with certain nouns, and is rare. Compare *kāryo*, for the sake of; *kiro*, from below; and *ajōnō*, from above.

Adjectives.—Adjectives ending in *o* (and nearly all do so) form the feminine singular in *ī*, and the plural of both genders in *ē*. An adjective agrees with its qualified noun in gender and number. The final vowel is apt to be slurred over to *a*, and this

makes it difficult to say whether there is any agreeing in case, to the extent of having an oblique form. The final vowel of the adjective is sometimes dropped altogether before another vowel, but this is not very common, except that it may always occur before the abbreviated forms 'an, 'un, 'in for *han* or *hun*, he is, and *hin*, she is. Thus, *miṣṭṭ* 'un, for *miṣṭṭo hun*, he is good; *miṣṭṭ* 'in, for *miṣṭṭi hin*, she is good.

An adjective, when used attributively, precedes the noun it qualifies. As an exception, we may note the fact that the word *būto*, all, frequently follows its noun, as in *jak būtè hairān bēimèn*, all the people become astonished; *bè būtè*, we all (agent *bè būtès*).

Comparison is effected by putting the noun with which comparison is made in the ablative, as in *anè mēṭṭ rēsè-jo uthalī hin*, this table is higher than that. The superlative is made with the aid of the ablative singular of *būto*, all, or of the ablative plural of *būto* with a demonstrative pronoun, or of the ablative plural of the noun with which comparison is made preceded by *būto*. Thus:—

anu mushā būtè-jo miṣṭṭo hun, this is the best man.

anu mushā anī būtu-jo miṣṭṭo hun, this man is the best of all these.

anu āshpo būtè āshpu-jo miṣṭṭo hun, this is the best of all horses.

A list of the principal *Numerals* will be found in the Standard List of Words and Sentences.

III. PRONOUNS.—The pronouns of the first and second persons are:—

	I.	Thou.	We.	You.
Nom.-Acc.	<i>mā</i>	<i>tu</i>	<i>bè</i>	<i>tso.</i>
Agent.	<i>mas, masè</i>	<i>tus, tusè</i>	<i>bès</i>	<i>tsos, tsus.</i>
Oblique.	<i>ma, mē</i>	<i>tu, tū</i>	<i>asu</i>	<i>tsu, tso.</i>
Genitive.	<i>maī, maii</i>	<i>thaī, thaii</i>	<i>asaī, asaii</i>	<i>tsaī, tsaii.</i>
Dative.	<i>maṭè, maṭ</i>	<i>tuṭè, tuṭ, tūṭ</i>	<i>asuṭ</i>	<i>tsuṭ.</i>
Ablative.	<i>majo</i>	<i>tujo</i>	<i>asujo</i>	<i>tsujo, tsojo.</i>

Examples of these pronouns are:—

mā bujum, I will go.

mā āsh gatal gānus, I have walked on foot today.

shilōiki sababich mā sōiki dubumus, because of the aching I cannot sleep.

charūṭus ajōni chēlak gī mā sharminda tharēgo, the thief has put me to shame by an extraordinary trick.

zhèk mōrè-kārtè mā raṭēgo, for what reason did he stop me?

mas thaī dī tōm pūṭhēṭ bēchumus, I want your daughter (as a wife) for my son.

maī konāli, my stick.

maī ḡhēi āshpè han, I have three horses.

Khudaiè-kār maii hālich jāk āṭè, for God's sake take pity on my state.

anī khachī bām maṭ ginarēguno, you have made bought to me this worthless mare (i.e. you have made me buy it).

maṭ lēl nish, it is not known to me.

maṭ tom gōṭ dish dē, give me a place (i.e. a lodging) in your house.

ma-jo muṭḥhō wato, he came before (i.e. ahead of) me.

mà muçhkō wato, he came before me (i.e. into my presence).

mā-kār Kashgārè-jo rōs èk mişhō àshpo walerēgun, he has caused to be got (i.e. has obtained) a good horse for me from Kashgar.

mā-sā'ti wā, come with me.

mā-kach rupaiè nish, I have no money with me.

hukam bilī tu-ga wā, it has been ordered that you also should come.

mas tu jūk-gīni şhidam, I'll beat you with a stick.

tu-ga dāsèt harōn, we shall take you also to the desert.

tus kachāk gāçhèt walēgā, at what price did you buy it?

thaī dishèr kos kōm thēi, who will work in your place?

thaī katār o sandūkèr hin, your knife is in the box.

tuţ khabar dam, I will give you information.

balū mas tuţ zhèk rēganus, what did I say to you yesterday?

tu-jo mā fatakī-ā, tu-jo mā şheir-ā, am I balder than you, am I blinder than you?

lōşhtai tū-kach wām, I shall come to you tomorrow.

hukam bilī bē-ga wōn (or *tso-ga wā*), it has been ordered that we also should come (or that you also should come).

akhana ro chhūt bul to, bē gyē baiōn (or *tso gyē baièt*), if he comes late, we shall (or you will) have gone.

bē-ga tso majā anī dīr hin, this is the boundary between us and you.

anē rupaiè tsos āko majā bagā, divide this money up among yourselves.

There are at least three Demonstrative Pronouns, each of which can be used as a pronoun of the third person. These are *o* and *ro*, both used when the object is remote, and *anu* or *nu*, used when the object referred to is near. *O* and *ro* may therefore be translated 'he,' 'she,' 'it,' or 'that,' and *anu* or *nu* by 'he,' 'she,' 'it,' or 'this.' All three have distinct forms for the feminine only in the nominative-accusative and in the agent singular. In the other cases of the singular, and throughout the plural, there is no distinction of gender. It may be added that, strictly speaking, *o* belongs to the Puniālī dialect. The usual Gilgitī word is *ro*.

As in Indian languages, demonstrative pronouns are sometimes used where we should employ the definite article, as in the sentence *thaī katār o sandūkèr hin*, your knife is in the box. Other examples will be found below.

When these pronouns are used as adjectives, they agree with the noun in gender and number, but do not change for case. In practice, however, the final vowel is often dubious.

The declension of *o*, he, she, it, that, the, is as follows:—

	Singular.	Plural. (Common Gender).
Nominative-Accusative.	masc. <i>o</i> , fem. <i>è, é</i>	<i>ai</i> .
Agent.	masc. <i>ōs</i> , fem. <i>ēs</i>	<i>aisè</i> .
Oblique.	<i>èsè</i> (comm. gend.)	<i>aino, ainu</i> .
Genitive.	<i>èsè, èsēi</i> , etc.	<i>aino, anēi, ainaii</i> .
Dative.	<i>èsèt</i>	<i>ainotè, ainut</i> .

Ablative.	<i>èsè-ju</i>	<i>aine-ju.</i>
Locative I.	<i>èsèr</i>	<i>ainur.</i>
Locative II.	<i>èsich, èsij.</i>	<i>ainuch, ainuj.</i>

The following are examples of the use of this pronoun :—

- ās naṭè dē*, he will give dancing (*i.e.* will dance).
ōs o kōm akōṭ thēgun, he has done that work by himself.
èsè gōṭ gyē, going to his (*i.e.* another person's, not his own) house.
èsè ṣhutèr èk bāzibanak asul, there was a necklace on her neck.
èsè fatū, after that.
èsè aji shūo chiviēnen, they place the boy on the top of it.
aino-mūjā èksè rēgo, one among them said.

In the following the pronoun is used adjectivally :—

(a) Masculine singular :—

- o manūjo mu-muchho walyā*, bring ye that man before me.
o tōtā tom kūyè-jo sugōm dē kir waii bādshāṭ salām thēn, the parrot, coming from its own country down through the smoke-hole, says 'salaam' to the king.
uskūnīs tom tom guṭè-jo ṭiki o mushāṭ walēnen, the relations, each from his own house, bring food for that man.

(b) Feminine singular :—

- mas tēn-akī è chēi tūt shō tharam*, I shall now at once get that woman to accept you.
è chēyè shākèr èk kōo asul, there was a bracelet on the woman's arm.
è khēnè-jo anè khēn bosinēt mas ro nēi pūshīgūnus, from that time to this time I have not seen him.
è kūyèr tamāsha thēnis, in that country they were holding festival.
è khēnēt tañ, up to that time, up to then.

(c) Plural (common gender) :—

- ai jago-jo o shūo dūr gyē baiyēn*, the lad, going far away from those people, sits down.

The declension of *ro*, he, she, it, that, is as follows :—

	Singular.	Plural. (Common Gender.)
Nominative-Accusative.	masc. <i>ro</i> ; fem. <i>rè</i>	<i>rī.</i>
Agent.	masc. <i>rōs, rōsè</i> ; fem. <i>rèsè</i>	<i>rīs, rīsè.</i>
Oblique.	<i>rèsè</i> (comm. gend.)	<i>rīno, rīnu.</i>
Genitive.	<i>rèsè, rèsēi</i> , etc.	<i>rīno, rīnēi.</i>
Dative.	<i>rèsèṭ, rèsèṭè</i>	<i>rīnoṭè, rīnuṭ, rīnoṭ.</i>
Ablative.	<i>rèsè-jo, -ju</i>	<i>rīnè-ju.</i>
Locative I.	<i>rèsèr, rèsar</i>	<i>rīnur.</i>
Locative II.	<i>rèsich, rèsij</i>	<i>rīnuch, rīnuj.</i>

The following are examples of the use of this pronoun :—

- ro balā Giltè-jo jas bul*, he started off from Gilgit yesterday.
balāo-jo ro rogōto han, he has been ill since yesterday.

- ro ma-jo muchho nifāto*, he arrived before me.
ro bōdo hairān bul, he was much surprised.
ma-jo rē jēk bē miṣṭi bilī, how was she better than I ?
mas ro nēi pashigunus, I have not seen him.
ro-ga lip tharēn sugōm dē ajē, him also he hurled up through the smoke-hole.
rē ākō sā'ti harīgē, they took her with them.
rōs ako-kār bēchin, he wants it for himself.
rōs anu kōm tom ikhtiār gē thēgo, he did this on his own authority.
tus dēgarēi gāḥḥ dōiki hano. yā rōs dōiki han, either you or he must give the price of the sheep.
tu pūshigē to, rēs-ga jādu thōik' 'in, when she sees you, she too will do magic.
rēsē āshpo māi āshpē-jo miṣṭo han, his horse is better than mine.
rēsē ēk pūḥak asul, he had a son.
mas rēsē raiōikēṭ baḥik nēi walumis, I do not believe what he says (lit. to his saying).
rēsē nōm jēk 'an, what is its name ?
rēsēṭ buyēt thē, explain to him.
pōi rūpaiē rēsēṭ dōik baii, it will be (necessary) to give five rupees to him.
mas rēsēṭ ho thēgas, I made a call to him (i.e. I called him).
rēsēṭ (or rēsē-ju) kujē, ask him.
mā rēsē-ju yēr bē gās, I went on in front of him.
'jakun bōt' thē, 'fū thē rēsē-wār, saying 'may she become an ass,' blow towards her.
Khudās sho dashtaii rī kōs haranis, God best knows who used to take them away.
rīs akō-majā jēkēk churi thīgēn, they have committed some theft among each other.
nēi rīno-sā'ti birga thēn, they will fight with them again.
rīno-fatū rōs-ga hai thē gōṭ wān, he too, running after them, comes to the house.
rīno-majā zid hin, there is enmity between them.

In the following the pronoun is used adjectivally :—

(a) Masculine singular :—

ro manūjo, that man.

(b) Feminine singular :—

anē pōn rē pōnē-jo miṣṭi hin, this road is better than that road.

(c) Plural (common gender) :—

mas rī du manūjē chār pachār thēgas, I brought the two men face to face.

rī jak fatū-muchho hanuk būṭē cherūṭe hanē, the people living round about are all thieves.

The declension of *anu*, he, she, it, this, is as follows. A variant of it is *nu*, which is declined in the same way, with the omission of the initial *a* of *anu*. It may be remarked that forms of the pronoun *nu* also occur in the village dialects of Kāshmiri.

	Singular.	Plural. (Common Gender.)
Nominative-Accusative.	masc. <i>anu</i> ; fem. <i>ana</i> , <i>anè</i>	<i>anē</i> .
Agent.	masc. <i>anusè</i> , <i>anus</i> ; fem. <i>anisè</i> , <i>anis</i>	<i>anīsè</i> , <i>anīs</i> .
Oblique.	<i>anèsè</i>	<i>anèno</i> , <i>anènu</i> .
Genitive.	<i>anèsè anèsèi</i> , etc.	<i>anènè</i> , <i>anènèi</i> .
Dative.	<i>anèsèt</i>	<i>anènuṭ</i> .
Ablative.	<i>anèsè-jo</i>	<i>anènu-jo</i> .
Locative I.	<i>anèsèr</i>	<i>anènur</i> , <i>anènur</i> .
Locative II.	<i>anèsich</i> , <i>anèsij</i>	<i>anènuḥ</i> , <i>anènuj</i> .

The following are examples of the use of this pronoun :—

anu tuṭ yaṣṭki han, he is fit for thee.

anè maii dī nè, she (this woman here) is not my daughter.

anu adè fat thè, leave this so.

mas anu nēi bēchumus, ama kyèto mutu nish mas ginumus, I do not want this one, but because there is no other I will take it.

anusè bujōikèt rak nish, he does not intend to go (lit. of him for going there is no intention).

anus tōm hyūo-gīni kōm thēn, he works with his heart (*i.e.* enthusiastically).

anus anu mōr thē lōko gōu, saying this, he immediately went off.

anus anu kōm ṣhataṇ thēgu, he did this action on purpose.

dashtamus anus hai thēgun, anèsēi hēṣṣ wāan, he looks as if he had run, he is breathing so (lit. I know he has done running, his breath comes).

anèsèt jèk thēnen, what do they call this (indirect object in dative) ?

anèsè-ju fatū, after this.

anèsè-jo basko maṭ derkāl nish, I do not want (lit. to me is not required) more than this.

mā-gè anèsè-kār watusus, for this reason I too came.

anèsich kālō vīōkun, a patch should be put on this.

anèsè hakèr jèk rāano, what have (you) to say in regard to this ?

anèsè sā^{ti} mas ṣhānum, I shall send it with this (person).

anèno-majā bōdī farak hin, there is great difference between them.

anèno-majā ko pasand thēno hūn thè, take whichever you like of these.

In the following the pronoun is used adjectivally :—

(a) Masculine singular :—

anu bao maii han, this thing is mine.

anu kōmēi mā jēk chāra nish, of (i.e. for) this matter I have no remedy.

anu kulu mas tēn pēzhōikētē herum, I shall take this grain now for grinding.

būtē bawē anu sandūkē-jo nikhalē, take everything out of this box.

jak būtē anu manūjē-jo nārāz han, everyone is disgusted with this man.

(b) Feminine singular :—

anē dishē-jo mā pēzār kos harīgūn, who has removed my shoes from this place?

ē khēnē-jo anē khēn bosīnēt, from that time to this time.

anē pōn rē pōnē-jo mištē hin, this road is better than that road.

anē mōrē hakēr, in regard to this matter.

anē khāchē bām mā ginerēguno, you have made me buy this worthless mare (lit. you have made bought to me this worthless mare).

(c) Plural (common gender) :—

anī jārē, kiri waiōikēr, dāsē-jo mištē mištē funarē walē, Yūsufēt dēenen, the brothers, on coming down, having brought beautiful flowers of varied kinds from the country, give them to Joseph.

anī chēēs Yūsuf pashī katerē-gīnī jēs tom natho chāninen, jēs..., the women, on seeing Joseph, some of them cut their noses with the knives, some...

The Genitives of the personal and demonstrative pronouns are used as *Possessive Pronouns*.

Equivalent to the Hindī *apnā*, always referring to the subject of the sentence, is the *Reflexive Possessive Pronoun* *tomo* or *tom*, own. It is treated like an adjective. Thus :—

mas thai dī tom pūchēt bēchumus, I want your daughter for my (own) son.

maṭ tom gōt dish dē, give me a place in your house.

rōs anu kōm tom ikhtīār gē thēgo, he did this on his own authority.

mālus tomē shadarut hukam thēgo, the father gave order to his servants.

uskūnīs tom tom guṭē-jo fiki o mushāṭ walēnen, the relations, each from his own house, bring food for that man.

ēsēi jā tomī saīdē-jo jigo han, his brother is taller than his sister.

The *Reflexive Pronoun* is *akī* or *ākī*, self. Its oblique form is *ako* or *āko*, which is also used for the accusative. Thus :—

mas akī pashīgas, I saw it myself.

rōs ako-kach chhivāgo, he kept it with himself.

Equivalent to the Hindī *āpas-mē*, is *ako-majā*, among themselves, as in :—

rīs ako-majā ger thēigē, they quarrelled among themselves.

It is very doubtful if there is any *Relative Pronoun* in the language. Sometimes the Interrogative Pronoun *ko* appears to be used as such, but an occurrence of this kind is rare. As a rule the two clauses are simply stated in juxtaposition, the relative clause being put first. Thus :—

o manūjo balā wato, ēk rūpai ēsēt dōkun, a rupee is to be given to the man who came yesterday.

balā wato manūjo, anu hun, this is the man who came yesterday.

As an example of the use of *ko*, it is not incorrect to say :—

o manūjo, ko balà watus, àsh-ga watun, the man who came yesterday has also come today. But this construction is not usual.

The *Interrogative Pronouns* are *ko*, who ?, which ?, what ? (animate), and *zhèk* or *jèk*, which ? what ? (inanimate). Either may be used adjectivally. In that case, *ko*, like other adjectives, agrees with its noun in gender and number, but not in case. On the other hand *zhèk* or *jèk*, when used as an adjective, is invariable.

The pronoun *ko* is declined as follows :—

	Singular.	Plural. (Common Gender.)
Nominative-Accusative.	Masc. <i>ko</i> ; Fem. <i>kè</i>	<i>kai, kèi.</i>
Agent.	Masc. <i>kōs, kōsè</i> ; Fem. <i>kēs, kèsè</i>	<i>kais, kaisè.</i>
Oblique.	<i>kèsè</i>	<i>kaisè.</i>
Genitive.	<i>kèsè, kèsēi, etc.</i>	<i>kaisè, kaisēi, etc.</i>
Dative.	<i>kèsèt</i>	<i>kaisèt.</i>
Ablative.	<i>kèsè-jo</i>	<i>kaisè-jo.</i>
Locative I.	<i>kèsèr</i>	<i>kaisèr.</i>
Locative II.	<i>kèsich, etc.</i>	<i>kaisich, etc.</i>

The following are examples of its use :—

ko àstôn lolyo àshpo-sā'ti yèr gōun, which groom has gone on with the chestnut horse ?

anè dishè-jo maï pēzār kos harigun, who has removed my shoes from this place ?

thaï dishèr kōs kōm thēi, who will do the work in your place ?

anu kāgaz kèsè-kār han, for whom is this letter ?

The pronoun *zhèk* or *jèk* is declined like a substantive in the singular when not used adjectivally. Thus :—

bala mas tuṭ zhèk rēganus, what did I tell you yesterday ?

anuse hakèr jèk rāano, what have you to say in regard to this ?

rèsè nōm zhèk han, what is its name ?

zhèkè nōm khujèno, of what are you asking the name ?

zhèkè-kār, for what ? on what account ?

rèsè-kār jèk hukam hin, what order is there for him ?

The interrogative pronouns are also used as *Indefinite Pronouns*. *Ko* may take the form *ko-ga*, and *zhèk* may take the form *zhèkèk*, meaning 'a thing,' 'something.' Thus :—

ko nēi watèn, no one came.

ko-ga wato to, rīnut dē, if anyone came give it to them, i.e. give it to whoever comes.

The genitive of *ko-ga*, is *kèsè-gè* or *kèsè-ga* as in *kèsè-gè kāt han to, dē*, whose-ever the wood is, give (it to him).

kèsèt pasand thōiki, to approve of some one.

maṭè zhèk tiki dē, give me some bread.

mas zhèkèk bèchumus, I want something.

maï zhèk chāra nish, I have no remedy, i.e., there is nothing I can do in the matter.

Zhèga, with a negative, means 'nothing,' not anything, not any, as in *zhèga nish*, there is nothing.

Pronouns of Quantity are *achāk* or *aiyāk*, so much, so many, and *kachāk*, how much, how many? The latter may be used either as a relative or as an interrogative. Examples are :—

achāk gin kachāk awājīn to, take so much as is necessary.

achāk nēi gin, don't take so much.

kachāk manūjē han to, *aiyāk kurtsiē walē*, bring as many chairs as there are people.

tus kachāk gāçhēt walēgā, for how much price did you buy it?

ānyo Yāsīnēt kachāk dēzo pon han, how many days march is it from here to Yasin?

IV. VERBS.—A. Auxiliary Verbs and Verbs Substantive.—The present tense of the Verb Substantive has, in the singular, separate forms for the Masculine and for the Feminine. In the plural it is of common gender. It is conjugated as follows :—

I am, etc.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
Masculine.	Feminine.	Common Gender.
1. <i>hanus, hunus</i>	<i>hanis</i>	<i>hanis, hanès.</i>
2. <i>hano</i>	<i>hanè</i>	<i>hanèt.</i>
3. <i>han, hun, hano, hanu</i>	<i>hin, hanī</i>	<i>han, hanè.</i>

The accent throughout is on the first syllable.

In the third person singular, the initial *h* is often dropped, and the remaining '*an*, '*un* or '*in* becomes an enclitic. Thus, *mişto hun*, he is good, becomes *mişt'-'un*, and *miştī hin*, she is good, becomes *mişt'-'in*. In the same person, the forms without a final vowel are those most commonly used. The following are examples of the use of this tense :—

mas tēn-aki bujōikēt chak hunus, I am ready to start at once.

mà rèsè zima hanus, I am his surety.

tus dēgarēi gāçh dōiki hano, you are to (i.e., must) give the price of the sheep.

agār nishōikēt taiār han, the fire is on the point of going out.

anu tuş yashki han, he is fit for you.

jak bütē anu manūjē-jo fētik han, everyone is disgusted with that man.

thāi āshpo han-ā, have you a horse?

thāi jèk kōm 'an, what business is it of yours?

rèsè nōm zhèk 'an, what is its name?

thaï sūrat anè sūratè-mājā jèk yūlo hun, what difference is there between your appearance and this picture.

anu shadar açhèmo han baii, amà her kōmèt tīnu hun, this servant may be a knave, but he is clever at anything.

tèn bilkul mişto hun, he is quite well now.

thaï jèk kōm hanu to, maş chaga thè, whatever your business is, tell me.

èsè uçhōikèt rak hin, it is his intention to run away.

maï kōm daper thaï jèk hājat hin, what business have you got with my affairs?

thaï katār o sandūkèr hin, your knife is in the box.

anè sandūk āpik futīl' in, this box is a little broken.

ro mişto bōiki umèt hanī, there is hope of his getting better.

sinēi-majā èk barī girīk tsak uthēi hānī, there is a large boulder standing in the middle of the river.

maï nasīb jèk hanī to, è baii, whatever my fate may be, that will come to pass.

maï çhēi āshpè han, of me there are (i. e., I have) three horses.

ānyo Yāsīnèt kachāk dèzo pon han, how many days' march is it from here to Yasin?

The Past tense has three forms,—two longer, with *l* in the termination, and a shorter without *l*. The shorter form is conjugated as follows:—

		I was, etc.	
		SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Masculine.		Feminine.	Common Gender.
1. <i>asus</i>		<i>asis</i>	<i>asès.</i>
2. <i>aso</i>		<i>asè</i>	<i>asèt.</i>
3. <i>asu</i>		<i>asī</i>	<i>asè.</i>

The first form with *l* is conjugated as follows:—

1. <i>asulus</i>	<i>asilis</i>	<i>asilis.</i>
2. <i>asulo</i>	<i>asilè</i>	<i>asilèt.</i>
3. <i>asul, asulu</i>	<i>asil, asilī</i>	<i>asal, asilè.</i>

In the third person, the forms ending in a vowel are not in general use. In both the above paradigms, the stress accent is on the first syllable throughout.

The second form with *l* is a compound of the two preceding forms, in which the form without *l* is added after the form with *l*. We thus get *asulūsus*, I was, and so on for the other persons. As indicated, the accent is here on the penultimate.

The only example of the first form that I have noted is:—

anè mişto' asī, this (thing, fem.) was good.

Examples of the first *l*-form are more common. Thus:—

yūn ga sūrī pārulo shūok asul, there was a boy like the moon and the sun.

rèsè èk pūchak asul, he had a son (lit. there was a son of him).

muçhō anu ashāto asul, tèn āp-āp shatīlo bulun, formerly he was weak, now he has gradually become strong.

chilinji çhīşhij achāk hin asul, bē pār bōik bash nē asul, there was so much snow on the Chilinji Pass that there was no ability that we to cross it (i. e., that we were unable to cross it).

akhana maṭ khabar asil to āl mā bam sāk, if there had been news to me (i.e., if I had been informed), I should have been there.

sānij sao asil, there was a bridge over the river.

anu dawai jamāat perī asil, the Dev's wife was a fairy.

There is a negative verb substantive, *nish* or *nush*, meaning 'is not,' 'are not,' as in the following:—

anuseḥ bujōikēṭ rak nish, there is no intention of him to go (i.e., he does not intend to go).

anēsē-jo basko maṭ derkāl nish, more than this is not necessary for me (i.e., I do not want more than this).

maṭ lēl nish, it is not known to me (i.e., I don't know).

yā kēno āshpo walē, yā loṛlo. Perwā nish, bring either the black horse or the bay.

There is no matter (which).

Other tenses of the verb substantive are supplied from the verb *bōiki*, to become. The following are the principal tenses of this verb:—

Infinitive, *bōiki*, *bōik*, or (in composition) *bōk*, to become, the act of becoming. (This can be declined like a noun. Its oblique case is *bōikkē*.)

Apocopated Infinitive, *bō-*.

Present Participle (continuous), *bōjē*, a-becoming, becoming.

Conjunctive Participle, *bē*, *bē*, *bēi*, or *bai*, having become, having been.

Future and Present Subjunctive, I shall become, I may become, etc.

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
Common Gender.			Common Gender.		
1.	<i>bom</i> , <i>bam</i> , <i>bum</i> , <i>baiēm</i> ¹			<i>bōn</i> , <i>baiōn</i> ¹	
2.	<i>bē</i> , <i>bēi</i> , <i>baiē</i> ¹			<i>bāat</i> , <i>baiēt</i> ¹	
3.	<i>baii</i> , <i>baiē</i> , <i>bai</i> , <i>bēi</i>			<i>bēen</i> , <i>bēin</i> , <i>baien</i> ¹	
Present, I become, I am becoming, etc.					
Masculine.		Feminine.	Common Gender.		
1.	<i>bōmus</i> , <i>bamus</i>	<i>bamīs</i>	<i>bōanas</i>		
2.	<i>bēino</i>	<i>bēinē</i>	<i>bāanēt</i>		
3.	<i>bēin</i> , <i>bēen</i>	<i>bīn</i>	<i>bēinen</i> , <i>bēenen</i> , <i>bēenin</i>		

Imperfect, I was becoming, etc.

1.	<i>bamasus</i>	<i>bamisis</i>	<i>bōnasis</i>
2.	<i>bēiso</i>	<i>bēisē</i>	<i>bāasēt</i>
3.	<i>bēis</i> , <i>bēes</i>	<i>bīs</i>	<i>bēimisē</i>

Past (a), I became, etc.

1.	<i>bulus</i>	<i>bilis</i>	<i>bilēs</i>
2.	<i>bulo</i> , <i>bilo</i>	<i>bilē</i>	<i>bilēt</i>
3.	<i>bul</i> , <i>lulu</i> , <i>bulo</i>	<i>bil</i> , <i>bilī</i>	<i>bilē</i>

¹ These forms are used only in the formation of the subjunctive or of the future perfect tense of another verb. See p. 353.

Past (*b*), I became, etc.

Masculine.	Feminine.	Common Gender.
1. <i>bīgas</i>	<i>bīgīs</i>	<i>bīgēs</i>
2. <i>hīaà</i>	<i>bīgè</i>	<i>bīgèt</i>
3. <i>huan, bugo</i>	<i>bīgī</i>	<i>bīgè</i>

Perfect (*a*), I have become, etc.

1. <i>bulumus</i>	<i>bilinis</i>	<i>bilēnis</i>
2. <i>buluno</i>	<i>bilenè</i>	<i>bilènèt</i>
3. <i>bulun</i>	<i>bilin</i>	<i>bilèn</i>

Perfect (*b*), I have become, etc.

1. <i>bīgānus, bīganus</i>	<i>bīginis</i>	<i>bīgēnis</i>
2. <i>bīgāno, bīgano</i>	<i>bīgenè</i>	<i>bīgènèt</i>
3. <i>bīgūn</i>	<i>bīgīn</i>	<i>bīgèn</i>

Pluperfect (*a*), I had become, etc.

1. <i>bulusus</i>	<i>bilēsis</i>	<i>bilēsis</i>
2. <i>buluso</i>	<i>bilēsè</i>	<i>bilēsèt</i>
3. <i>bulus</i>	<i>bilīs</i>	<i>bilēsè</i>

Pluperfect (*b*), I had become, etc.

1. <i>bīgasus</i>	<i>bīgisis</i>	<i>bīgēsis</i>
2. <i>bīgaso</i>	<i>bīgisè</i>	<i>bīgēsèt</i>
3. <i>bīgus</i>	<i>bīgīs</i>	<i>bīgès</i>

Imperative.

2. *bo*, become thou. *bà*, become ye.
 3. *bōt* or *bōt-à*, let him or them be.

It will be observed that in this verb the Past, Perfect, and Pluperfect tenses have each two forms, marked *a* and *b*, respectively, in the paradigm. In each pair of forms the meaning is the same.

This verb is used not only with the meaning of 'to become,' 'to be,' but is also employed, with the infinitive of another verb, to mean 'to be able.'

The following are examples of the use of this verb in all its meanings:—

Infinitive.

Chilinji chīshij achāk hīn asul, bē pār bōik bash nē asul, there was so much snow on the Chilinji Pass that we were unable to become across (*i.e.*, to cross) it.
shakar fash bōiki kachi han, bāzārē-jo basko girōk-un, the sugar is about to become finished, more must be got from the bazaar.

jas bōikè-jo muçhō, tu ma-kach wà hukem ginōikèt, before you become started (i.e., before you start) come to me to get orders.

àshpo er bōikèr rōs àshpo zamēgo, on the horse becoming shying (i.e., on its shying) he beat the horse.

Apocopated Infinitive.

ana khèn bō-sīnèt, up to this time being, i.e., up to now.

shūo mişto bō-sīn waii khabar ginen takursè, by the time the boy becomes better (lit. until the boy's becoming better), the barber comes and enquires (how he is).

Conjunctive Participle.

tu aiè bē baiyēno, having become thus you sit, i.e., you sit thus.

o gala dīto parulo bē yaiyen, he walks having become like a wounded man, i.e., as if he were wounded.

Future and Present Subjunctive.

loşhtaièk bujōik bam, to-morrow I shall be able to go.

akhèr ànu kōm tus thōik bè, in the end you will be able to (i.e., must) do this work.

kai khèn bō-sīnèt tus mai ūşh dōik bèi, by when will you be able to pay what you owe me ?

tèn Haiabān nisè-sāatī chyū baii, now Haiabān will become in love with this (woman).

pōi rūpaiè rèsèt dōik baii, èk rūpaièk zerūr dōik bèi, it will be (necessary) to give five rupees to him, (in any case) it will certainly be (necessary) to give one rupee.

tut lèl baii, it will become known to you, i.e., you will understand.

mai nasīb jèk hanī to, è baii, whatever my fate will be that will come to pass.

mai buba baii to, taii sum ōshè dēi sik, if my father were (here), he would give your dust to the wind (i.e., annihilate you).

akhana ro mirjè sik to, rèsè pūch rèsè dishèr Rā baii sik, if he died, his son would become Raja in his place.

àsh rāato rèsèt khat dè, kyèto ro loşhtaièk chèl jās bēi, give him the letter to-night, so that he can become departed (i.e., leave) early to-morrow morning.

Giltèt bī-ga-èk tārīkèr nīfaiōikè-kār, bè Chilāsè-jo ashtāi tārīkèr Giltēi-wār jas bōik bōn, in order to reach Gilgit on the twenty-first, we shall have to start from Chilās on the 18th.

dashtamus zerūr thaī būf tser bēin, I know your boots will certainly go to pieces.

anè kursī anè sandūkè-sāatī gati thē ganè, kyèto anī berī baiyè parulè bēen, having put this chair together with the box, tie (iv), so that the two half-loads may be equal.

akhana ro Yasinè-jo bujè sik to, Yasinēi jèk bütè shuriār bēen sik, if he were to leave Yasin, all the people would be glad.

In the following the subjunctive meaning is emphasized by the addition of à :—

rōs ma-jo khujēgu thaī āshpo gāçh ginōiki bōm-à yā nē, he asked me (whether) I be (willing) to buy your horse or not.

mà āl baiēm-à, nēi baiēm-à, maṭ lel nish, whether I may be there or not is not known to me.

shaiyad kiri gaiēr bāruṣhè bēen-à, perhaps there may be duck (lower) down in the ravine.

Present.

dāsēr haiē thīgas to, mà oyano bamus, (when) I have played in the open, I become hungry.

tus maṭ pōi rūpai tēn dōik bēino, can you give me five rupees now ?

bādshā khush bēin jērī mur gī, the king becomes pleased at what the old woman said.

dūt sūḥach gyēi mūlaiē aīar shak bēin, the milk going on a straight (line) becomes full in (i.e., fills) the mouth of the girl.

Haiabān sōdāt jās bēin, Haiabān becomes departing (i.e., sets out) for trading.

gumān bīn ma-kach èk manak gūm bēen, probably there is with me about a maund of wheat.

tu-jo basko fatako nēi bēen, there is none more bald than you.

laiak nēi bēen to, bas fat thēa, if it cannot be found, just give ye it up.

sañ miṣṭo nēi bēen, the light is not good.

na ro rukhsatij bujōik bēen, na tu, neither he can go on leave, nor you.

her-khēn anu āshpij bula dēgè to, kuḍo bēen, whenever they have played polo on this pony, it becomes lame.

With à intimating an implied question, and hence giving a subjunctive force, we have :—

manēṭ-kachi manēk gūm bēin-à, yā basko bāi, bush, whether there may be about a maund of wheat, or whether there is more, is not known.

gumān (fem.) bīn, there is a presumption, hence, probably, I suspect (that), I imagine (that). So *imkān bīn*, there is possibility, possibly.

bādshāē jamāat ān-ān thē kachèrè bīn, the king's wife, hee-hawing, becomes a mule.

tabakèr paiē shak bēenen, maggots became full in the dish, i.e., the dish became full of maggots.

anu èk fala, kūyèr kachāk chēyè agūrè nēi bēenin to, çabīo chēri nikhalē, ai chēuṭ èk èk thē dē, cut this one apple into sixty pieces, and as many women in the country as are not pregnant, to those women give one each.

Imperfect.

shudāro shākaj lamīgo to, shāko chas bēes, when he laid hold of the boys' arm, the arm was becoming (i.e., used to become) broken (i.e., the arm of one of the boys broke).

Past.

tèn tik khigaso, kashap kè bè oyāno bilo, you had just eaten food, why did you become hungry so soon?

Mīr Sāip tōm shadarè zhèk thātuj *ʔfītik bul* (or *bulun*), the Mīr Sāhib was (or has been) displeased at something which his servant had done.

ro bala Giltè-jo jas bul, he became started (i.e., he started off) from Gilgit yesterday.

sōrè-ʔji māi kōn nālo bul, my ear became blue with the cold.

ro bōdo hairān bul, he became much surprised.

èk èkèt sāatī bul, one became with to the other, i.e., one helped the other.

anī paisa (fem.) *fash bil*, this money became exhausted.

ma-jo rē jèk bē miṣṭī bil, how was she better than I?

rēs ādē thōikēr, būṭē rōḡhātē bilē, on her saying this all became angry.

āshpich *ʔfal bīgās*, I became mounted on the horse, i.e., I rode.

anē dishè-jo tu lañ bīgā to, mas tu maram, if you became moved (i.e., if you move) from this place, I will kill you.

Perfect.

Yūsuf jōno hun. Miserī Bādshā bulun, Joseph is alive. He has become King of Egypt.

gumān bīn kākas gala dito bulun, probably the partridge has been wounded.

tèn āp-āp shatīlo bulun, now he has gradually become strong.

ana satranji jèk-na-jèkèk khachī bilin, this carpet (fem.) has become somewhat damaged.

derum-bō-sinēt ma-kār miṣṭo shuka lōik bīgāno yā nēi, have you yet been able to get me a good *chōgā* or not?

Pluperfect.

guṭè-jo yēr-āl māi bāwak fat bulus, a thing of mine had been lying a short distance ahead of (i.e., from my point of view, beyond) the house.

Imperative.

mās bèchumus tu pār è ḡṭṣḡich-ajè bo, I request, 'do you climb (i.e., I want you to climb) up on to the top of that hill over there.'

tu jèk bo to, mas tu maram, become prostrate (i.e., lie down), (and) I will kill you.

o āl nēi bōt, let him not be there! i.e., may he not be there!

Khudaiyā, anē kachèrèk bōt, O God, may this (woman) become a mule!

'*jakūn bōt*' *thē, ʔfū thē rēsè-wār*, saying 'may she become an ass,' blow towards her.

With reference to the statement made above that *bōiki* often means 'to be able,' it may here be mentioned that the Shinā for 'not to be able' is *dubōiki*. Examples of the use of this latter verb will be found under the head of Intransitive Verbs.

B. The Transitive Verb.—In Shinā there are two different verbal conjugations,—that of the Transitive and that of the Intransitive Verb. These differ materially in the conjugation of the past tenses. Except in the Future tenses and in the Imperative, the

finite tenses have two genders each in the singular, while in the plural they are all of common gender. If, in the singular, the subject of the verb is masculine, the masculine form of the verb is used, and if it is feminine, the feminine. Whether transitive or intransitive, and whether in a past tense or not, the verb agrees with the subject in number and person. There is nothing like the passive construction of the past tenses of a transitive verb with which we are familiar in India. On the other hand, the subject of a transitive verb, in whatever tense the latter may be, is always put into the Agent case, as in *mas shidam*, I shall strike. This custom, although the form itself is Aryan, seems to be borrowed from the neighbouring Tibetan, in which the idiom is the same, and in which the Agent case also ends in *s*. Thus, the Tibetan for 'I' is *na*, but 'I beat you' is *nas khyod rduñ*. The Tibetan verb does not change for number or person, but *Shinā*, while adopting this idiom, has at the same time retained its old Aryan inflexions, and does so change.

The Infinitive, in its full form, ends in *-ōiki*, *-ōik*, or *-ōk*, as in *shidōiki*, *shidōik*, or *shidōk*, to strike. This is really a verbal noun, meaning 'the act of striking' and is declinable like any other noun, its oblique case ending in *-ōikè*. It is also used as a participle of necessity, as in *shidōiki* or *shidōk*, one who has to strike, one who must strike, one who is on the point of striking. An apocopated form of the infinitive is obtained by omitting the final *-iki*, as in *shidō*. This is used in the formation of the present participle, and also in certain adverbial phrases, such as *shidō-sinèt*, up to the time of striking.

A Noun of Agency is the same in form as the infinitive, as in *shidōiki* or *shidōik*, (one who is prepared) to strike, hence, a striker. It is really the infinitive employed in a special idiom.

A Present Participle (continuative) is formed by adding the postposition *ajè* to the apocopated infinitive. Thus, *shidō-jè* or *shidōjè*, on striking, equivalent to our old-fashioned 'a-striking.'

The Conjunctive Participle, or Past Participle Active, is formed by substituting *ē*, *ēi*, or *aii* for the *-ōiki* of the infinitive, as in *shidē*, *shidēi*, or *shidaii*, having struck. In this form the stress accent is always on the termination. Thus, *shidē*. Root-accented verbs (see below) take the termination *ī* not *ē*. Thus, *harī*, having taken away.

For all Verbs, the conjugational base may conveniently be assumed to be what remains of the infinitive after rejecting the final *-ōiki*. Thus the conjugational base of *shidōiki*, to strike, may be taken as *shid-* and that of *dōiki*, to give, as *d-*.

The tenses of the Transitive verb fall into three groups. The first group is founded on the Future tense, in which the personal terminations are added directly to the base. Thus, *mas shid-am*, I shall strike. This tense was originally a present indicative, and, as we shall see from the examples, is still occasionally employed as such. From this a Present is formed by adding fragments of the present tense of the verb substantive, as in *mas shidamis*, for *shidam-hunus*, I strike. Again, an Imperfect is similarly formed with fragments of the past tense of the verb substantive, as in *mas shidamusus*, for *shidam-asus*, I was striking.

In the second person plural of these three tenses, the stress accent usually falls on the termination, as in *shidāt*, you will strike; *shidānèt*, you strike; *shidāsèt*, you

were striking. Some verbs, however, prefer to keep the accent on the base, and, in such verbs, the termination of this form is lightened. Thus, the verb *harōiki*, to take away, forms *hārat*, not *harāt*, you will take away; *hāranèt*, not *harānèt*, you take away; *hārèsèt*, not *harāsèt*, you were taking away. These verbs, which may be called 'Root-accented,' have other peculiarities, which may be summarized here. The conjunctive participle ends in *ī*, not *é*, as in *harī*, not *haré*, having struck. The second person singular of the imperative has no termination, as in *har*, not *harè*, take away !, and the past tenses (see below) are formed with the termination *-īg-*, not *-ég-*, as in *harīgo*, not *harégo*, he took away. These forms will be dealt with more fully on subsequent pages.

The second group of tenses is founded on an old past participle, now obsolete, made by adding *-ēgo* or *-ēgu*¹ to the conjugational base. Thus, **shid-ēgo* or **shid-ēgu*. In the first and second persons of the past tense, the personal terminations are simply added to this old past participle, as in *mas shidēgas*, I struck. The third person is the participle alone, without any termination, as in *rōs shidēgo*, he struck. To form a perfect, fragments of the present tense of the verb substantive are added, as in *mas shidēgunus*, for *shidēgu-hunus*, I have struck. Similarly, with the past tense of the verb substantive, we get a pluperfect, as in *mas shidēgasus*, for *shidēgu-asus*, I had struck. Root-accented verbs (see above) take *-īg-*, instead of *-ég-*, in these tenses, and we shall see subsequently that some of these also insert *ī* in the tenses of the first group. In these tenses the stress accent is always on the first syllable of the termination. Thus, *shidēgas*, *shidēgasus*.

The third group consists of Periphrastic tenses, formed with the help of auxiliary verbs. Such are:—

The Future Perfect, formed by conjugating the Conjunctive Participle (or Past Participle Active) with the future of *bōiki*, to become, as in *mas shidē baiem*, I shall have struck.

The Tense of Obligation, formed by conjugating the infinitive, in its sense of a participle of necessity, with the verb substantive, as in *mas shidōiki hunus*, I have to strike, I must strike. This is usually contracted into *mas shidōk-'unus* or *shidōkunus*, which may also mean, 'I am on the point of striking.'

An element of uncertainty, equivalent to our 'perhaps,' is given by adding *bai*, the third singular future of *bōiki*, to any of the tenses of the first two groups, as in *mas shidam bai*, perhaps I shall strike; *shidēgas bai*, it may be that I struck. In many cases the context will make this practically equivalent to a subjunctive mood.

All the above forms belong to the Indicative Mood. The Future Indicative may also be used where we should use the Present Subjunctive, and in such cases, if the particle *ā* is added, it gives a definite subjunctive force, as in *mas shidam-ā*, I may strike. Other tenses of the English Subjunctive are indicated by the use of certain particles, which will be dealt with under the head of Indeclinables, together with the appropriate tenses of the Indicative. We shall see, under the head of Indeclinables, that this particle, *ā*, is also used to give an interrogative force to a sentence, and this is

¹ The vowel of this termination *ēgo* or *ēgu* is really the long sound of *ē*, but, as the representation of this would entail complications in printing, I write simply *ē*, which approximately, if not accurately, represents the sound.

no doubt its original power. When used to indicate the English subjunctive, it really suggests an implied question.

The second person singular of the Imperative ends in *è*, and the plural in *à* or *yà*. Thus, *shidè*, strike thou, *shidà* or *shidyà*, strike ye. In the singular, root-accented verbs (see above) drop the final *è*, as in *har*, for *harè*, take thou away. The third person singular and plural ends in *òt*, as in *shidòt*, let him or them strike.

With these preliminary remarks, I now proceed to give the paradigm of the conjugation of the transitive verb *shidōiki*, to strike. The most usual forms only are given, and it must be understood that there is much laxity in the employment of the vowel sounds, which vary with different speakers or with the stress accent. It may also be noted that, with some speakers, there is a tendency for the *g* of the typical *-ēgà-* of the tenses of the second group to degenerate into *y*, while the preceding vowel is modified or absorbed. Thus, such a speaker will say *dyau* for *dēgu*, he gave, and *dīyanus* for *dēgunus*, I have given :—

Infinitive, *shidōiki*, *shidōik*, or *shidōk*, to strike, the act of striking ; (as participle of necessity) one who must strike, one who is on the point of striking.

Sing. dat. *shidōikèt(è)*, to strike (infinitive of purpose, etc.), loc. *shidōikèr(o)*, on striking.

Apocopated Infinitive, *shidō-*.

Noun of Agency, *shidōiki*, *shidōik*, one who (is prepared) to strike, hence, a striker.

Present Participle, *shidōjè*, a-striking, striking.

Conjunctive Participle or Past Participle Active, *shidé*, *shidēi*, or *shidai*, having struck (but *harí*, having taken away).

Future and Present Subjunctive, I shall strike, I may strike, I strike, etc.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
Common Gender.		Common Gender.
1. <i>shidam</i> , <i>shidum</i>		<i>shidōn</i>
2. <i>shidè</i>		<i>shid'āt</i> (but <i>hārat</i>)
3. <i>shidai</i> , <i>shidaii</i> , <i>shidēi</i> , <i>shidè</i>		<i>shidèn</i> , <i>shidēen</i>

Present, I strike, I am striking, etc.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
Masculine.	Feminine.	Common Gender.
1. <i>shidamus</i> , <i>shidumus</i>	<i>shidamis</i>	<i>shidōnès</i>
2. <i>shidēino</i> , <i>shidèno</i>	<i>shidēinè</i> , <i>shidèeni</i>	<i>shid'ānèt</i> (but <i>hāranat</i>)
3. <i>shidēin</i> , <i>shidēen</i> , <i>shidēn</i>	<i>shidēin</i>	<i>shidēimen</i> , <i>shidēenen</i> , <i>shidēnen</i>

Imperfect, I was striking, etc.

1. <i>shidamusus</i>	<i>shidēimisis</i>	<i>shidōnèses</i>
2. <i>shidēiso</i>	<i>shidēisè</i>	<i>shid'āsèt</i> (but <i>hārèsèt</i>)
3. <i>shidēis</i> , <i>shidès</i>	<i>shidēs</i> , <i>shidēsh</i>	<i>shidēimèsè</i> , <i>shidēimis</i>

Past, I struck, etc.

1. <i>shidégas</i> (but <i>harígas</i>)	<i>shidégis</i>	<i>shidégès</i> , <i>shidéigès</i>
2. <i>shidégà</i>	<i>shidéigè</i>	<i>shidégèt</i>
3. <i>shidégū</i> , <i>-go</i>	<i>shidégī</i>	<i>shidégè</i> , <i>shidéigè</i>

Perfect, I have struck, etc.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
Masculine.	Feminine.	Common Gender.
1. <i>shidēgunus, -ganus</i>	<i>shidēginis</i>	<i>shidēgènès</i>
2. <i>shidēguno, -gano</i>	<i>shidēginē</i>	<i>shidēgènèt</i>
3. <i>shidēgun</i>	<i>shidēgin</i>	<i>shidēgèn</i>

Pluperfect, I had struck, etc.

1. <i>shidēgasus, -gusus</i>	<i>shidēgasis</i>	<i>shidēgèsès</i>
2. <i>shidēgaso, -guso</i>	<i>shidēgèsè, -gisè</i>	<i>shidēgàsèt</i>
3. <i>shidēgus</i>	<i>shidēgis, shidēgish</i>	<i>shidēgès</i>

Future Perfect, I shall have struck, etc.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Common Gender.	Common Gender.
1. <i>shidē baièn</i>	<i>shidē baiòn</i>
2. <i>shidē baiè</i>	<i>shidē baièt</i>
3. <i>shidē baiè, baii</i>	<i>shidē baien</i>

Tense of Obligation, I have to strike, I must strike, etc.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
Masculine.	Feminine.	Common Gender.
1. <i>shidōkunus, -anus</i>	<i>shidōkanis</i>	<i>shidōkanès</i>
2. <i>shidōkano</i>	<i>shidōkanè</i>	<i>shidōkanèt</i>
3. <i>shidōkun</i>	<i>shidōkin</i>	<i>shidōkanè</i>

Imperative, strike thou, etc.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Common Gender.	Common Gender.
2. <i>shidè</i> (but <i>har</i> , take thou away)	<i>shidà, shid'ā, shidyà</i>
3. <i>shidōt</i>	<i>shidōt.</i>

The following are examples of the use of the above forms :—

Infinitive.

khōiki sachu hun, dōiki naro hun, to eat is easy, to give (i.e., to pay for it) is difficult.

jawāb dōiki dubālo to, mārām, if he cannot give the answer, I will kill (him).

rōs ma-jo khujēgu thāi āshpo gāch ginōiki bōm-ā yā nē, he asked me whether I shall be able to buy your horse or not.

anu mōs pajū-jo āre khōik 'un, this meat is to be eaten without salt.

gūcho thāi fīkē khōiki maṭ harām han, to eat your bread gratuitously (i.e., without making any return) is unlawful for me.

anu kōmè-kār tus jèk thōiki thāi hēr han, what is your intention to do about this matter?

kachī-gīni jakur churūk thōiki, to cut the hair with scissors.

akhèr anu kôm tus thōik bē, as a rule you must do this.

anu khat-gè heri dāk-khānaèt viōik bash bo, having taken away this letter also, you should put it in the post-office.

We have seen that *bōiki* is used to mean 'to be able.' 'Not to be able' is indicated by the verb *dubōiki*. Thus:—

anu kōf ādè pto hun mas banōik dubumus, this coat is so tight I cannot put it on.

Shēr Afzal bula dōik dubēen, Sher Afzal cannot play polo.

anu waii achāk tāto han mas piōik dubumus, this water is so hot I cannot drink it.

The infinitive is declined, as in:—

lōshṭaièkèt bōla çhakōikètè tu wāno nēi wāno, are you coming to watch the polo to-morrow?

è khèn mas dōikèt çhak asulusus, at that time I was ready to give.

tu ma-kach wā hukam ginōikèt, come to me to get orders.

dōikè-ju çhēi chhaku-ju fatu, three days after giving.

mas raiōikè-jo gūcho, without I saying, i.e., without my instructions.

ro waiōikèr būlè jak tsak ūthilè, on his coming all stood up.

loètè ʳfāl thōikè-kār çhēi shudārè derkāl han, three boys are required to throw up (i.e., to field) the balls (at tennis).

Apocopated Infinitive.

kè khèn tus fīk khō-siñ mās āshpo lāmum, while you are eating bread, I will hold the horse.

tus raiō-sinèt mà nē parudunus ro uçhuto, until you told (me), I haven't (i.e., hadn't) heard that he ran (i.e., had run) away.

anè dishèr bari mas ho thō-sinèt, stay in this place till I call.

Noun of Agency.

è khènèr mas dōik asulusus, at that time I was on the point of giving (or 'prepared to give').

dōik ro mūm, the giver (i.e., the debtor) has died.

Present Participle.

açhūn dè-kir çhakōjè āshè birès, a-looking down the hole, it (the horse) was shedding tears.

tu ino gā to, anu dūa raiōjè tom jamāata-wār ʳfū thè, when you go from here, repeating this prayer (i.e., spell) blow towards your wife.

rāati sūryo rōjè baiyen, he sits weeping night and day.

Conjunctive Participle for Past Participle Active.

wo Yūsuf, çhakē maī hālij jāk àtè, O Yūsuf, having looked take pity on my state.

taperzīni-gīni jèrè shīsh dē, having delivered a blow with an axe down on the old woman's head.

mas çhakum kyè thē mā rizèk nēi khyē 'Khudaiè khamis' thīn, I shall see why, not eating my daily food, she says 'I eat God's.'

Jibrāil tom chandè-jo mişṭè mişṭè çhīlè nikhālè Yūsufèt banerèn, Gabriel, having taken fine clothes of various kinds out of his pocket, clothes Yūsuf.

Khudā-ga Rasūlich tom jamāat hawāla thē nikhāan, consigning his wife to (the care of) God and the Prophet, he goes off.

pōn fat thē abōm nēi bo, having left the road, do not go across country.

mas hai thē, gyē, ro jap lamīgās, I, having done running (i.e., having run), having gone, seized him without warning.

tus tom hēr nāt thē, 'jakun bōt' thē, 'fū thē rēsè-wār, to jèk pashīgà to, pūshè, then, having made a prayer in your heart, having said 'may she become an ass,' make a puff towards her. Then you will see what you will see. The use of *thē*, as here, to mean 'having said,' or 'saying' is very common. So:—

mas tuṭ rēgasus, 'anu 'falaiè tum āñ nē chukè' thē, I said to you, saying 'do not plant the apple-tree here,' i.e., I told you not to plant, etc.

Haiabānsè Naniār-ga Janiār bē sāatī ginī, sōdāt jas bēin, Haiabān, having taken both Naniār and Janiār with him, set out for trading.

aiyo manūjèkèt ana mūlaii harī dē, having taken this girl, give (her in marriage) to such a man.

rēsè hatīj lamī, having taken her by the hand.

akhana rōs charūto pashī nēi lamīgūn to, bōdo jakun han, if, having seen the thief he has not caught him, he is very much of an ass.

dūban hilēlo-kach walē fat thēnen, having brought the fire of 'ispandur' to the bridegroom, they put it down.

bādshās çhakēn, fakīrè-wār çhakēi sūyēn, the king looks. Having looked towards (i.e., at) the faqīr, he recognizes (him).

Future and Present Subjunctive.

jèk tus bèchino to mas tuṭ dam, I will give you what you want.

mas dam-à nēi dam-à, thaī jèk kōm 'an, what business is it of yours whether I give or not?

mas dam bai, perhaps I shall give.

māi barāo mārēguno, tēn mas tu kyè thē haram, you have just killed my husband, how am I now to marry you?

'kham' thē, hat àtēgo, saying 'I will eat,' he put out his hand (to the dish).

mas tu maram, I will kill you.

mas kyè thē khacho kōm tham, why should I do an evil thing?

mas kīl mārōik talāsh tham, I shall make an attempt to kill an ibex.

anūsè sāatī mas çhāpūm, I will send it with this person.

mas çhakum kyè thē mā rizèk nēi khyē 'Khudaiè khamis' thīn, I shall see why, not eating my daily food, she says 'I eat God's.'

mas akōṭ ginūm (or *harūm*), I will take it myself.

mas tu jūk-gīni şhidum, I will beat you with a stick.

çhakai to è kùyer tamāsha thēnis, he finds that in that country they were holding sports.

jūkaii tōrè nikhalā to, bādshāè puçsè tom gerèt tsirai, get ye out stumps of wood, (and) the prince will split them up for his wedding.

çhakaii to annu dawai jamāat perē asil, he sees (that) the dev's wife is a fairy.

Khudās sho dashtaii rē kōs hāranis, God best knows who used to take them away.

akhana rēsèt jèk bāwak derkāl han to, tu-jo bèchèi, if he wants anything, he will ask you for it.

rōs tom dī zerūr dēi, he will certainly give his daughter.

thaī dishēr kōs kōm thēi, who will do the work in your place?

lōshṭaièkèt çār bashè lōètè dōn, we shall strike balls (i.e., play tennis) to-morrow at four o'clock.

èk perda ganōn, èsè fatu thaī jamāat baii tom chaga thōt, we shall fix up a curtain, and your wife will sit behind it and tell (lit. let her tell) her story.

kaisè shishich bèfē to, bādshā ginōn, on whosoever head it (the hawk) may alight, him we shall take as king.

tu-ga dāsèt hērōn, you also we shall take to the desert.

anī paisa fash bil to, nēi jèk thōn, when this money is exhausted, then what shall we do?

Khudaiā-wārē buyèt thōn, we shall make a petition to God.

yā muçho yā fatu rēsēi dushmanis ro mārēn, sooner or later his enemies will kill him.

nēi rīno-sā^{ti} birga thēn, they will do fighting (i.e., will fight) with them again.

dōik-ro-ge ginōik-ro-gè baiya mukāmuk therè, ako-majā sūçh thēn, bring the Debtor and the Creditor face to face, and they may make settlement (i.e., let them settle the matter) between themselves.

Present.

dashtamus zerūr thaī būṭ tser bēin, I know your boots will necessarily go to pieces.

dō thē to, mas khamus, you prepare parched wheat, I eat (i.e., will eat) it.

anu ashpo mas bilkul khush nē thamus, I do not like this horse at all.

anu kōm siçōiki-kār mas mash thamus, I am practising in order to learn this work.

mas thaī dī tōm pūçhèt bèchumus, I want your daughter (as a wife) for my son.

mas anu nēi bèchumus, amā, kyè-to mutu nish, mas ginumus, I don't want this one, but, because there is no other, I take it.

achāk tutān han, mas sabak raiōiki nēi pāshumus, it is so dark that I do not see to read.

mas çhakum kyè thē māi rizèk nēi khyē, 'Khudaiè khamis' thēn, I shall see why, not eating my daily food, she says 'I (fem.) eat God's.'

jèk bèchèno to, bèch, ask for whatever you want.

jèkè nom khujèno, what are you asking the name of?

tus shiṇā thèno, do you speak Shiṇā?

èsè-kār ako tsupush thèno, for that reason you make yourself grieved (i.e., you are worried).

ko āshpo bèchino to, har, take whatever horse you want.

anusé hakèr jèk rāano, what do you say in regard to this?

bādshās rāan, 'nēyā, tus khidmat khātir miṣṭo thēni,' 'not at all,' says the king, 'you serve me excellently.'

sugōm dē-kir ṣhakēen, he looks down through the smoke-hole.

bādshās èk dèzèkèr tom Mīr Wazīruṭ hukam dēen, one day the king gives orders to his Chief Viziers.

anus tōm hyūo-gīni kōm thēen, he works with his heart (i.e., enthusiastically).

bādshās ṣhakēn, fakīrè-wār ṣhakēi, sūyēn, the king looks, having looked towards the fakir he recognizes him.

bujōikèr anī butōṭ kulè dēn, on their going away, he gives grain to them all.

kaman tom brag-dapar ganēn, he ties the noose round his waist.

shūo miṣṭo bō-sīn, waiī khābar ginēn takursè, by the time the boy is better, the barber, having come, takes news (i.e., inquires how he is).

o mushās rāan, 'mā Kanāanī,' thēn, the man says, 'I am a Canaanite,' says he.

ṣhilè dujōikèṭ dubus sābum bèchin, the Dhōbī wants soap to wash the clothes with.

akhāna rōs ādè rāan to, khaltè rāan, if he says so he lies.

thaī gōṭ kōs kurān rān to, tēshij nikhaī rōt, whoever recites the Qurān in your house, let him come up on the roof and recite it.

tikī dī-ga pūṣhè sā'ti fakīrèṭ ṣhānīn, she sends food with (i.e., by the hands of) (her) daughter and son to the fakir.

mās ako-wāro yā barōnuk yā rupaièk takurèṭ dīn, the mother gives to the barber from herself either a ring or a rupee.

rāani, 'wo Yūsuf, ṣhakè, māi hālij jāk āṭè,' thīn, she says, 'O Joseph, having looked, take pity on my state,' says she.

Zura Khātūnsè rāan, 'tu-jo mā 'fataki-ā? tu-jo 'mā ṣheī-ā?', Zura Khatun says, 'am I balder than you? am I blinder than you?' (Here Zura Khātūn is a woman.)

anī jārè, kiri waiōkèr, dāsè-jo miṣṭè miṣṭè 'funarè walè, Yūsufèṭ dēenen, the brothers, on coming down, having brought fine flowers of many kinds with them from the country, give them to Joseph.

irgātak ai bāi shāṣhè thēenen, round about they make the twelve figures.

èk gānèk 'fāṭsīj gānenen, they tie one leg (of the old woman) to a poplar tree.

dūban hilèlo kach walè fat thēnen, they bring the fire of 'ispandur' to the bridegroom, and put it down.

zūrī dānū sūrij vīenen, they put the 'zūrī' pomegranates in the sun.

uskūnīs tom tom guṭè-jo tikī o mushāṭ walēnen, the relations, each from his own house, bring food for that man.

In the above, note how in the verb *raiōiki*, to say, the letter *ā* as the first vowel of the termination, as in *rāano*, thou sayest, *rāan* or *rān*, he says, *rāani* or *rāan*, she says, is drawingly lengthened to *āa*. This is not uncommon. In such cases, the *a* may be part of the termination, thus, *rā-ano*, *rā-an*, *rā-ani*, and so on. Similarly, from *khōiki*, to eat, we have:—

gati bē khānen, they eat together.

If the root contains a short vowel, and the stress accent falls upon it, the vowel is liable to be lengthened. Thus, from *ganōiki*, to fix, we have, above, *gānenen*, they tie or fix.

Imperfect.

akhana bula muḥho dēs to, tēn kyin dēen, if he used formerly to play polo, why does he not play now?

maī gumān bīn, rōs her chhak tōm hasrēt ēk rūpai dēs bai, it is my belief, he was probably giving (i.e., he may have been giving) a rupee a day to his cook.

kōs tiki dīgī to, hēsḥēr nēi khās, if any (woman) gave him food, in his anxiety he was not eating (it).

akhana rās rēsēt zulem thēs to, maī kyin būyēt thēgo, if the Governor was doing oppression to him, why did he not make petition to me?

ana chaga thōikēr, rēsē jārēs dārīch kōn dēenis, while he was saying this, his brothers were giving ear at the door.

ē kūyēr tamāsha thēenis, in that country they were holding festival.

fatu muḥhō hai thēenis, they were running backwards and forwards.

Past.

mas akī pashīgas, I saw it myself.

balā mas pīnēgas ēsē-jo anu āshpo miṣṭo hun, this horse is better than the one I rode yesterday.

mas rēsēt rēgas tus rēsēt hukam dēi sik jēk kōm thōkun, I told him you would give him orders what to do.

mas rī du manūjē chār pachār thēgas, I made (i.e., brought) the two men face to face.

mas jūk birachich trak thēgas, I made cut (i.e., I cut) the wood crossways.

gumān bīn mas anu barālēt muḥho tom mazūrī dēgas bai, I fancy that perhaps I gave this coolie his wages before.

naṭē dēgā to, abōm nēi wā, subōm wā, if you dance don't move from left to right, but from right to left.

tus kiē ādē rēgā, why did you speak thus?

rēsē-jo khōjēn thē kiē anu kōm tus nēi thēgā, ask him, 'why did not you do this deed?'

'*kham*' *thē hat āfēgo*, saying 'I will eat,' he put out his hand.

rōs ma-jo khujēgu, he enquired from me.

rōs maī rēgu, he said to me.

aino-majā ēksē rēgo, one among them said.

zhēk mōrē-kārṭē mā raṭēgo, maī lēl nish, I do not know for what reason he stopped me.

anus anu kōm āsinaiyo thēgu, he did this deed by accident.

rōs anu kōm tom ikhtīār-gē thēgo, he did this on his own initiative.

chēsē tiki ādē khēgī oyanī parulī, the woman ate as if she were hungry.

Note *kōs tiki dīgī to, hēsḥēr nēi khās* (imperfect), if any (woman) gave him food, in his anxiety he did not eat it. Here, according to the paradigm, we should expect *dēgī*.

ako-majā gash thēigēs, we quarrelled among ourselves.

walēgēt to, marōn, when ye have brought him, we shall put him to death.

herkhèn anu àshpij bula dēgè, whenever they played polo on this horse.
rīs ako-majā ger thēige, they quarrelled among themselves.
pōni-majā waiž, ako-majā sula thēigè, having gone (some way) on the road, they came to terms among themselves.

Perfect.

mas tom tumak rēsēt dēgunus, I have given him my rifle.
balā mas tuž zhèk rēganus, what did I tell you yesterday?
tus 'dam' thē dēguno, saying 'I will strike,' you struck (*i.e.*, you struck him intentionally).
tus o àshpēt du skal rupaiè dēgàno, you have given two hundred rupees for that horse.
maī barāo tèn mārēguno, you have just now killed my husband.
derum maii ūsh maī nēi dēgun, he has not yet given me what he owes me.
o manūjo ber-nāhak mārēgun, he has unjustifiably killed that man.
ōs o kōm akōṣha thēgun, he has done that deed of himself.
rōs ma-sā'ti àsh duk bōiki kāt thēgun, he has made promise to meet me to-day.

Pluperfect.

'*mas dam' thē, nē dēgasus*, saying 'I will strike,' I had not struck him (*i.e.*, I had not struck him intentionally).
è khènèr maī shak bul 'rēsēt mas mazūrī nēi dēgusus bai', at that time my doubt occurred (that) perhaps I had not given to him the hire.
mas tuž rēgasus, I had said to you.
pumūko mas ādè thēgasus, at first I had done thus.
akhana rōs è kūi ginōik bēchīgus, pār ginōik baii sik, if he had wanted to take the land, he could have taken (*i.e.*, bought) it last year.
lōīsè àshpè chōmè asbāb būfè khēgīs, the (she-)fox had eaten all the leather work of the horse (*i.e.*, the saddlery).

Future Perfect.

mas dē baiēm, I shall have given.
mā nīfaiōikè-jo muçhō zarūr Munshīs berālūt mazūrī dē baiè, before I arrive the Munshī will certainly have given pay to the coolies.

Tense of Obligation.

mas barālēt mazūrī dōkunus, I have to give the coolie (his) pay.
tus dēgarèi gāch dōiki hano (or *dōkano*), *yā rōs dōiki han* (or *dōkun*), you must give the price of the sheep, or he must give.
rōs maī dōkun, he has to give to me.
tu pashīgī to, rēs-ga jādu thōik' 'in (or *thōkin*), when she saw (*i.e.*, sees) you, she too will do magic.
anīs maī dōiki hanè (or *dōkanè*), they have to give to me.
 The third person singular of this tense may also be used impersonally, as in :—
o manūjo balā wato, èk rūpai èsēt dōkun, it is necessary to give a rupee to the man who came yesterday.
àshpè sārpe ganōkun, it is necessary to shoe the horse.

àshpè kūrè jīgè bilèn, kūrè kerpā thōkun, the horse's hoofs have become long, it is necessary to cut them.

tèn buyèt nēi thōkun, it is not proper to make a petition now.

anu kōm kè-zēligè thōkun, it is necessary to do this work somehow, *i.e.*, this must be done somehow.

mas rèsèt rēgas tus rèsèt hukam dēt sīk jèk kōm thōkun, I told him you would give him orders (as to) what is to be done.

anēsich kālo vīōkun, it is necessary to put a patch on this (garment).

Imperative.

chakè, maī hālīj jāk àtè, having looked, take pity on my state.

mèchè kir chakè, look under the table.

anu fālaiè tus āñ nè chukè, do not plant this apple-tree here.

kāgazi mèchich aji chhurè, put the papers down on the table.

matè zhèk fiki dè, give me some bread.

achāk bōdo nēi kamè, do not spend so much.

būte bawè anu sandūkè-jo nikhalè, take everything out of this box.

tom shadèro-majnè-jo dū hushiār manūjè anu kōmich shè, put two intelligent men from among your servants on this job.

jap lami shidè, strike (him) without warning.

anu chèlèr sumè tèt shak thè, make this lamp (lit. in this lamp) full (with) kerosine.

tus gyè waii walè, do you, having gone, bring water, *i.e.*, go and bring water.

The following are examples of verbs that omit the final *è* in the second person singular imperative (see p. 352):—

jèk bichèno to, bich, ask for whatever you want.

anu kāgaz Sāipè kach chān, send this letter to the Sāhib.

achāk gin, kachāk awājin to, take as much as may be necessary.

ko àshpo bèchino to, har, take whichever horse you want.

The following are examples of the second person plural:—

anè rūpaiè tsōs ako-majā bagà (or samarà), divide these rupees among yourselves.

herkhèn ro wato to, rèsèt fiki dèa, whenever he comes, give ye him food.

jūkaii fōrè nikhalū, get ye out stumps of wood.

Khān Sāipèt rà mā-kach waii, tell ye the Khān Sāhib to come to me.

maī hukamè-jo gūcho fat nè thèa, do not ye let him go without my orders.

anusè dijōikèt shon thèa, take ye care for its falling, *i.e.*, that it does not fall.

maī shadèri thyà to, tsut bōdi talab dam, serve ye me, (and) I will give you much pay.

o bādshāè pūch walyà (or walà) to, mārōn, bring ye that king's son, and we shall kill him.

The following are examples of the third person:—

thaii gōt kōs kurān rān to, tēshij nikhaii rōt, whoever (it may be that) recites the Qurān in your house, let him come up on to the roof and recite (it).

Khudās nēi thōt o āl nēi bōt, God grant he may not be there (lit. let God not do, let him not be there).

ək pərda ganōn, ɛsɛ fatu tai jamiat baii, tom chaga thōt, we shall fix up a curtain, and your wife will sit behind it, and (there) let her tell (her) story.

We have seen above (p. 351) that the Past, Perfect, and Pluperfect tenses are formed from an obsolete past participle ending in *-ēgo* or *-ēgu*, so that we get the forms *shid-ēgas*, I struck; *shid-ēgunus*, I have struck; and *shid-ēgasus*, I had struck. Root-accented verbs (see p. 351), such as *chhīnōiki*, to cut, prefer, however, to substitute *ī* for the *ē* of the termination, so that we get forms such as *chhīn-īgas*, I cut, and so on. The following are the forms of these three tenses:—

Past, I cut, etc.		
	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
	Masculine.	Feminine. Common Gender.
1. <i>chhīnīgas</i>	<i>chhīnīgīs</i>	<i>chhīnīgēs</i>
2. <i>chhīnīgā</i>	<i>chhīnīgē</i>	<i>chhīnīgēt</i>
3. <i>chhīnyūgo</i>	<i>chhīnīgī</i>	<i>chhīnīgē</i>
Perfect, I have cut, etc.		
1. <i>chhīnīgunus</i>	<i>chhīnīginīs</i>	<i>chhīnīgènēs</i>
2. <i>chhīnīguno</i>	<i>chhīnīginē</i>	<i>chhīnīgènēt</i>
3. <i>chhīnīgun</i>	<i>chhīnīgin</i>	<i>chhīnīgèn</i>

Similarly, the Pluperfect is *chhīnīgasus*, I had cut, and so on.

Some verbs, as will be seen from the following examples take either *ē* or *ī* at option. Thus (p. 358), we have *dīgas*, as well as *dēgas*, *thīgas*, as well as *thēgas*, and so on.

shām bōsīnēt lōētē dīgas, I played tennis till evening.

mas rēsē zimā ginīgas, I went surety for him.

mas ro jap lamīgas, I seized him without warning.

mas ko lañ bōikēr nēi pashīgās, I saw no one pass by.

tus thēgā ē chōkij mas-ga thīgas, I did it in the same way that you did (it). Here we have the same verb with both *ē* and *ī* in the same sentence.

kèkhèn tus kōerē banīgā to, jas bōn, as soon as you (have) put on (your) boots, we shall start.

kèkhèn-jo tus ro pashīgā, bōdo jero bulun, since you saw him he has become very old.

kèkhèn tus kōm mištuk thē nēi thīgā to, tuṭ talab baski nēi tham, so long as you did (i.e., do) not work properly, I will not increase your wages. With *thīgā*, compare *thēgā*, a few lines above.

shudāro shākaj lamīgo, he laid hold of the boys' arm (i.e., the arm of each boy).

kaikhèn rōs mā waiokēr pashīgo, tsak uthīlo, when he saw me coming he got up.

akhana rōs anu kōm nēi thīgu to, jēl-khānār chhivīā, if he does (lit. did) it again (nēi), put ye him in prison.

kōs tiki dīgī to, hēsērḥ nēi khās (imperfect), if any (woman) gave him food, in his anxiety he did not eat it.

tu pashīgī to, rēs-ga jādu thōik' 'in, when she sees (lit. saw) you, she also will do magic.

è chëisè sho thīgī, the woman agreed (to become your wife).
tsos gūche-gūchël Yūsufèt ann khacho mōr kyè thīgèt, why did you (plural) say
 this evil of Joseph without justification?
rè ako-sā'ti herīgè, they took her with them.
mas èk manūjuk dāk-khānāḇḇ ḥaṇīgūnus, I have sent a man to the post-office.
è khènè-jo ane khèn bosīnèt mas ro nēi pashīgūnus, from that time till now I have
 not seen him.
tus tom hatè-jo baièk asut tushār damijār thīgàno, you have given us as much
 trouble as you possibly could.
dēusè thāii dī kai-āpèr herīgūn, maṭ pōn pashèrè, in whatever direction the demon
 has carried off your daughter, show me the way.
akhana rōs cherūṭo pashī nēi lamīgūn to, bōdo jakun han, if, having seen the thief,
 he has not caught (him), he is a great ass.
kèkhèn ro gōun, anè khèn bōsīn maṭ khat nēi likhīgūn, since he went away, he has
 not written a letter to me.
rīno-majā zid hin, kètobal rīs akō-majā jèkèk churi thīgèn, there is enmity between
 them, because they have committed some theft among each other.
akhana mas rēsèt ho thīgāsus to, ro lōko ma-kach wai sik, if I had sent for him, he
 would have come at once.
mas 'bai' thīgāsus, I had said (i.e., I said some time ago) 'wait'.
anèsè-jo-gè khachakèt mà dīgaso to, nēi māi shukur asil, hadst thou given to me an
 even worse (man) than this, I should still (nēi) have been grateful (lit. there
 would still have been my thanks).
tèn tiki khīgaso, you had just eaten food.
yer tus ro pashīguso, tèn bōdo jero bulun, since you saw him (some time ago), he
 has grown very old.

The ī-conjugation.

In the above examples, we have been dealing with certain root-accented transitive verbs that take an ī in the tenses formed from the old past participle. There is another group of verbs which always take the letter ī throughout all tenses. This group I call 'the ī-conjugation.' Colonel Lorimer mentions the following verbs as belonging to this conjugation:—

chhivōiki or *chhibōiki*, to place, put down, keep (cf. Hindōstānī *rakhnā*).

ōsīōiki, to fill into.

kalōiki, to abuse, to count.

unīōiki, to foster (give milk to) a child.

hal tulōiki, to assemble a plough, to make it ready for use.

The following is a conjugation of the leading forms of *chhivōiki*:—

Present Participle, *chhivōjè*, a-placing, placing.

Conjunctive Participle or Past Participle Active, *chhivī*, having placed.

Future and Present Subjunctive, I shall place, I may place, etc.

	Singular.	Plural.
1.	<i>chhivīum</i>	<i>chhivīun</i>
2.	<i>chhivīḇ</i>	<i>chhivīḇḇ</i>
3.	<i>chhivī</i>	<i>chhivīḇn</i>

Present, I place, I am placing, etc.

Masculine.	Feminine.	Common Gender.
1. <i>chhivīumus</i>	<i>chhivīamīs</i>	<i>chhivīunēs</i>
2. <i>chhivīēno</i>	<i>chhivīēnē</i>	<i>chhivīunēt</i>
3. <i>chhivīēn</i>	<i>chhivīēn</i>	<i>chhivīēnen</i>

Similarly, the Imperfect is *chhivīusus*, I was placing, etc.

Past, *chhivīgas*, I placed, etc., like *chhīnīgas*, above.

Perfect, *chhivīgūnus*, I have placed, like *chhīnīgūnus*, above.

Pluperfect, *chhivīgāsus*, I had placed, like *chhīnīgāsus*, above.

Imperative, *chhivī*, place thou; *chhivīā*, place ye; *chhivīōt*, let him or them place.

I have noted the following examples of the use of verbs of this conjugation:—

mas ro akō-kach shaderīr chhivīum, I shall keep him near myself in service, i.e., I shall take him as a servant.

dī-ga pūch shikārē-jo muḥhō shal hat chhivīun, we shall place the girl and the boy a hundred cubits in front of the tower.

tom muḥhō chhivīēn, he puts (it) down in front of himself.

ēsē-ajī shūo chhivīēnen, they place the boy on the top of it.

rōs churī thē āṭīti gō akō-kach chhivīyūgo, he kept the stolen cow (lit. taken cow having done theft) in his possession.

anu dēger kyē thē unīgīsē, how had you (fem.) reared the goat?

mēchē kīr chhivī, put (it) under the table.

akhana rōs anu kōm nēi thīgu to, jēl-khānār chhivīā, if he does this thing again (*nēi*), put ye (him) in prison.

C. The Intransitive Verb.—The conjugation of the Intransitive Verb differs from that of the Transitive Verb only in the tenses formed from the past participle. In the transitive verb these are based on an obsolete past participle ending in *-ēgo* or *-īgo*, which is added to the conjugational base obtained by rejecting the termination *-ōiki* of the infinitive. Thus, from *shid-ōiki*, we get the old past participle **shid-ēgo*.

Intransitive verbs fall into two groups,—original and derivative. An example of an original intransitive verb is *buj-ōiki*, to go, of which the conjugational base is *buj-*. More often an intransitive verb is derivative, i.e., is derived from some transitive verb by the addition of the suffix *-ij-* or *-ij-* to the transitive conjugational base. Thus, from the transitive verb *fer-ōiki*, to turn (something) round, we have the derivative intransitive verb *ferij-ōiki* or *ferij-ōiki*, to turn round, return. We shall see subsequently that this suffix *-ij-* or *-ij-* is also regularly used to form passive forms, and, in fact, it is sometimes difficult to say whether we are to look upon a given verb as merely intransitive or as passive. In the case of intransitive verbs, variants of the suffix *-ij-* or *-ij-* are *-āj-* or *-aj-*, *-uj-*, and *-āch-* or *-ach-*, but these are of comparatively rare occurrence, and do not seem to be used to form passive verbs. Examples are *bilājōiki* or *bilajōiki*, to melt; *paru ōi kī*, to hear; and *uḥāchōiki* or *uḥachōiki*, to arrive.

Original transitive verbs form the past participle by adding sometimes *-to* and sometimes *-lo* to the conjugational base; but in making this addition there are many

irregularities. Especially, when the conjugational base ends in a consonant, this is generally dropped before *-to*. Thus, from *much-ōiki*, to escape, we have *mu-to*. Some verbs take only *-to*, others take only *-lo*, and others take one or other without change of meaning. A few original verbs take *-do* instead of *-to*.

Derivative verbs change the *j* of *-ěj-*, *-ǎj-*, or *-uj-* to *-do*, and in several cases have *-lo* as well as *-do*. Thus, from *ferījōiki*, to turn round, we have *ferīdo*, and from *bitījōiki*, to move, we have *bitīdo* or *bitīlo*. The few verbs with the suffix *-ǎch-*, change the *ch* to *-to*, as in *uḥāto* from *uḥǎchōiki*.

To illustrate the above remarks, I here give specimens of the formation of the past participles of various intransitive verbs:—

1. Original Intransitive Verbs, with Past Participles in *-to* or *-do*.

Infinitive.	Past Participle.
<i>muchōiki</i> , to escape.	<i>muto</i> or <i>muchīdo</i> .
<i>uḥōiki</i> , to run away.	<i>uḥuto</i> or <i>uḥīdo</i> .
<i>dījōiki</i> , to fall.	<i>dīto</i> .
<i>nikhaiōiki</i> , to come out.	<i>nikhāto</i> .
<i>waiōiki</i> , to come.	<i>wato</i> .

2. Original Intransitive Verbs, with Past Participles in *-lo*.

<i>ōiki</i> , to come.	<i>ālo</i> .
<i>bōiki</i> , to become.	<i>bulo</i> or <i>bīgo</i> . ¹
<i>dubōiki</i> , to be unable.	<i>dubālo</i> .
<i>jōiki</i> , to be born.	<i>jālo</i> .
<i>pōiki</i> , to make an appearance.	<i>pōlo</i> .
<i>rōōiki</i> , to weep.	<i>rōlo</i> .

3. Original Intransitive Verbs, with Past Participles in *-to* (*-do*) or *-lo*.

<i>uthōiki</i> , to rise.	<i>uthīdo</i> or <i>uthīlo</i> .
<i>chōiki</i> , to be delivered (of a child).	<i>chādī</i> or <i>chālī</i> (feminine).
<i>nīfaiōiki</i> , to arrive.	<i>nīfāto</i> or <i>nīfālo</i> .
<i>sīḥōiki</i> , to learn.	<i>sīḥīdo</i> or <i>sīḥīlo</i> .

4. Derivative Intransitive Verbs.

<i>uḥachōiki</i> or <i>uḥǎchōiki</i> , to arrive.	<i>uḥato</i> or <i>uḥāto</i> .
<i>chēnījōiki</i> , to be cut (of itself).	<i>chīdo</i> .
<i>lanījōiki</i> , to pass along, die.	<i>lanīdo</i> .
<i>parujōiki</i> or <i>pārurjōiki</i> , to hear.	<i>parudo</i> or <i>pārudo</i> .
<i>shumījōiki</i> , to be tired.	<i>shumīlo</i> .
<i>manupījōiki</i> , to be skilled in.	<i>manupīdo</i> or <i>manupīlo</i> .

5. The following are altogether irregular:—

<i>baiōiki</i> or <i>bēōiki</i> , to sit, remain.	<i>baiṭo</i> or <i>bēṭo</i> .
<i>āmūshōiki</i> , to forget.	<i>āmūṭo</i> or <i>āmushīlo</i> .
<i>bujōiki</i> , to go.	<i>gōu</i> or <i>gavu</i> .
<i>mirjōiki</i> or <i>mirījōiki</i> , to die.	<i>mūo</i> .
<i>pachōiki</i> or <i>pajōiki</i> , to ripen.	<i>pako</i> or <i>pajīdo</i> .

¹ Note that this verb may also be conjugated as if it were transitive.

In all the above, the stress accent is on the syllable preceding the *to*, *do*, or *lo*. Thus *uchûto*, *dîto*, *sichîdo*, *dubâlo*.

The following verbs, though transitive in English, are in Shinā treated as intransitives:—*āmūshōiki*, to forget; *pārujōiki*, to hear; and *sichōiki*, to learn.

The personal terminations of the past tense of an intransitive verb, are not the same as those of the transitive. They differ in the first and second persons singular masculine. Thus:—

SINGULAR.				PLURAL.	
Masculine.		Feminine.		Common Gender.	
Transitive.	Intransitive.	Trans.	Intrans.	Trans.	Intrans.
1. -as	-us	is, -īs	-is, īs	-ēs	-ēs
2. -ā	-o	-ē	-ē	-ēt	-ēt
3. -u or -o	-u or -o	-ē	-ē	-ē	-ē

It will be observed that the intransitive terminations are the same as those of *asus*, the past tense of the verb substantive. The case is different with the Perfect and Pluperfect tenses. Both in transitive and in intransitive conjugations, these are compounds of the past participle with *hanus* and *asus*, respectively. The Intransitive conjugation is therefore, in these tenses, the same as the transitive conjugation.

It will be remembered that the subject of a transitive verb is put into the Agent case in -s(ē). This is not the case with intransitive verbs, the subject of which is put into the nominative.

In order to illustrate the formation of the tenses of an intransitive verb, I here give a sketch of the conjugation of the verb *baiōiki*, to sit:—

Future and Present Subjunctive. I shall sit, I may sit. *baiām*, etc., like *shidām*.

Present. I sit, I am sitting. *baiamus*, etc., like *shidamus*.

Imperfect. I was sitting. *baiamusus*, etc., like *shidamusus*.

Past, I sat, etc.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
Masculine.	Feminine.	Common Gender.
1. <i>bētus</i>	<i>bētis</i>	<i>bētēs</i>
2. <i>bēto</i>	<i>bētē</i>	<i>bētēt</i>
3. <i>bētu, bēto</i>	<i>bēti</i>	<i>bētē</i>

Perfect. I have sat. *bētunus* or *bētanus*, etc., like *shidēgunus*, etc.

Pluperfect. I had sat. *bētasus* or *bētususus*, etc., like *shidēgasus*, etc.

Future Perfect. I shall have sat. *baiē baiēm*, etc., like *shidē haiēm*, etc.

Tense of Obligation. I have to sit, etc. *baiōkunas*, etc., like *shidōkunas*, etc.

Imperative. sit thou, etc.

baiē or *baii*, sit thou.

baiā or *baiyā*, sit ye.

baiōt or *baiyōt*, *baiut*, *baiyut*, or *bēōt*, etc., let him or them sit.

The verb *bujōiki*, to go, is irregular in some of its forms. Thus :—
Conjunctive Participle or Past Participle Active, *gyē*, having gone.

Past, I went, etc.

1. <i>gās</i>	<i>gyē's</i>	<i>gyē's</i>
2. <i>gā</i>	<i>gyē</i>	<i>gyē't</i>
3. <i>gōu, gōu, gauu</i>	<i>gyei, gēi</i>	<i>gyē</i>

Perfect, I have gone, etc.

1. <i>gānus</i>	<i>gyē'nēs</i>	<i>gyēanēs</i>
2. <i>gāno</i>	<i>gyē'nē</i>	<i>gyēanēt</i>
3. <i>gōun, gauàn</i>	<i>gīn</i>	<i>gyēan</i>

Pluperfect, I had gone, etc.

1. <i>gāsus</i>	<i>gyē'sis</i>	<i>gyē'sas</i>
2. <i>gāso</i>	<i>gyē'sē</i>	<i>gyē'sèt</i>
3. <i>gōus, gōs</i>	<i>gīs</i>	<i>gyē's</i>

Imperative. *bo*, go thou. *bà, bujà*, go ye. *bujōt*, let him or them go.

The verb *waiōiki*, to come, also presents difficulties in conjugation. The following are its principal forms :—

Conjunctive Participle or Past Participle Active, waii, having come.
Future and Present Subjunctive, I shall come, I may come, etc.

	Singular.	Plural.
1.	<i>wām</i>	<i>wōn</i>
2.	<i>wā, wà</i>	<i>wāat</i>
3.	<i>waii</i>	<i>wāèn, wān</i>

Present, I come, I am coming, etc.

	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
	Masculine.	Feminine.	Common Gender.
1.	<i>wāmus</i>	<i>wāmīs</i>	<i>wōnas</i>
2.	<i>wāano, wāno</i>	<i>wāinē</i>	<i>wāanēt</i>
3.	<i>wāan, wān</i>	<i>wāin, wāan'</i>	<i>wāanen</i>

Imperfect, I was coming, etc.

1. <i>wāmusus</i>	<i>wāmisis</i>	<i>wōneses</i>
2. <i>wēiso</i>	<i>wēisē</i>	<i>wāesèt</i>
3. <i>wēis</i>	<i>wēis</i>	<i>wānisē</i>

Past, I came, etc.

watus, etc., like *baitus*.

Perfect, I have come, etc.

watunus, etc., like *baiṭunus*.

Pluperfect, I had come, etc.

watusus, etc., like *baiṭusus*.

Future Perfect, waii baiēm, etc. I shall have come, etc.

Tense of Obligation, waiōkunus, etc. I have to come, etc.

Imperative. *wà*, come thou, or, come ye. *wôt*, *wàwôt*, let him or them come.

The above are the forms used in Gilgitī Shinā. In Puniāli, a different verb is used, viz.:—

Infinitive, *ōiki*, to come.

Present Participle, *ōjè*, a-coming, coming.

Conjunctive Participle or Past Participle Active, *eiž*, having come.

Future and Present Subjunctive, I shall come, I may come, etc.

	Singular.	Plural.
1.	<i>ēm</i>	<i>ōn</i>
2.	<i>ēi</i>	<i>ēāt, āat, āt</i>
3.	<i>ēi</i>	<i>ēn</i>

Present, I come, I am coming, etc.

	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
	Masculine.	Feminine.	Common Gender.
1.	<i>āmus, ēmus</i>	<i>āmās</i>	<i>ōnās</i>
2.	<i>ēno</i>	<i>ēinē</i>	<i>ānēt</i>
3.	<i>ēn</i>	<i>ēn</i>	<i>ēnen</i>

Imperfect, *āmusus*, etc., I was coming, etc.

Past, *ālus*, etc., I came, etc.

Perfect, *ālunus*, etc., I have come, etc.

Pluperfect, *ālusus*, etc., I had come, etc.

Future Perfect, *eiž baiēm*, etc., I shall have come, etc.

Tense of Obligation, *ōkumus*, etc., I have to come, etc.

Imperative, *ē*, come thou. *ā*, come ye. *ōt*, let him or them come.

Although this verb is looked upon as Puniāli, the Past, Perfect, and Pluperfect are also heard in Gilgit.

The following are examples of the use of regular intransitive verbs:—

Infinitive.

kōiñ-ēṭ tañ baiōik bēino to āñ tsag bo, stay here as long as you are able to stay, (i.e. as long as you can).

shilōiki sababich mà sōiki dubumus, I am unable to sleep because of the aching.

mà nifaiōikè-jo muḥhō, before my arrival.

Giltēṭ bē-ga èk tārīkèr nifaiōikè-kār, in order to reach Gilgit on the 21st.

anu kōm sīḥōiki-kār mas mash thamus, I am practising in order to learn this work.

kōs baiōikèṭ dish nēi dēnen, no one gave (her) a place to sit down (i.e. a lodging).

du bashōikèṭ, at striking two, i.e. at two o'clock.

agār nishōikèṭ taiār han, the fire is ready to go out.

ro o āshpich pīnōikèṭ bījèn, he is afraid to ride that horse.

chōiki asilī, she was about to be delivered (of a child).

Present Participle.

rāati sūryo rōjè baiyèn, he sits weeping night and day.

Conjunctive Participle.

kaikhèn ro uḥachī (or *nifaiž*) *baiṭun*, at what time he arrived (lit. having arrived), he sat down.

tēshij nikhaiž rōt, having come out on to the roof, let him recite.

āshnāiyo bāt shēchī mūo, being struck accidentally by a stone, he died.

Future and Present Subjunctive.

loşh̄taiēk bōs̄n̄h̄t̄ uḥāchum, I shall arrive tomorrow.

āshp̄e chijōf̄e kir baiam, I shall sit under the shade of the horse.

yā Ḥh̄eḥāl̄et̄ bujum, *yā Gizer̄er baiyum*, *n̄ei m̄a m̄az̄ei panzmoi Jun̄et̄ Gilt̄et̄ n̄ifaium*, whether I go to Chitral or stay in Ghizer, I shall be back in Gilgit by the 15th of June.

m̄a Gilt̄er n̄ifaiēm bai, I may perhaps reach Gilgit.

ēs̄e fatu tai jam̄aat baii, thy wife will sit behind it.

Present.

ʳfās̄i-jo n̄ei b̄ijum̄us, I am not afraid of hanging (*i. e.* being hanged.)

āpi āpi sat̄ar bashum̄us, I play the guitar a very little.

m̄a āsh bula ḥak̄ōik̄et̄ bujōik̄ dubum̄us, I cannot go to-day to watch polo.

mas ban̄ōik̄ dubum̄us, I cannot put it (a coat) on.

anu kōm thōiki m̄a n̄ei parujum̄us, I do not hear (*i. e.* understand) how to do this work.

m̄a t̄en Ṣh̄in̄ā s̄iḥum̄us, I am now learning Ṣh̄in̄ā.

achāk gin kachāk awāj̄in to, take as much as is necessary.

ai jago-jo o sh̄ūo dūr gȳe baiȳen, the lad, going far away from those people, sits down.

bula dōik̄ dubēen, he cannot play polo.

ashm̄ūo beriz̄h̄er k̄ūi būl̄er kōn̄er j̄en, in the eighth year a famine appears (*lit.* is born) in all countries.

herkh̄en anu āshpij bula d̄eḡe to, kuḍ̄j̄en, whenever they have played polo on this horse, it goes lame.

Shāt̄ir̄e Per̄i kūȳer n̄ifaien, he arrives in Shāt̄ira Per̄i's country.

kōsh̄e-jo nikh̄āan, he becomes unconscious (*lit.* comes out of his senses).

ro mishto b̄e paruj̄en-ā, does he hear well?

āshpo fat̄ut̄ yaȳen, the horse walks backwards.

o dās̄ei chup̄er n̄ifaiēnen, they come to the edge of that plain.

We have feminine forms of the third person singular in :—

tsupush b̄e tom gōf̄ baīn, having become grieved, she sits in her own house.

ēk kūȳek̄er n̄ifaīn, she arrives in a certain country.

pōnich yaȳin, she proceeds along the road.

Imperfect.

gōf̄e-ju fatu baīs̄, he was sitting behind the house.

tum̄e kir s̄ēs̄, he was sleeping under the tree.

Past.

anu kōmich manup̄id̄us, I am skilled in this work (*manup̄ijōiki*).

zh̄ek̄ tus raīituk m̄a p̄arud̄us, I have heard what you said (*p̄arujōiki*). *Raīituk* is past participle passive with the suffix *k* of unity) (see p. 373).

āsh balāt̄et̄ ma-kach w̄a. *Dubālo to, ch̄el buj̄et̄ w̄a*, come to me this evening. If you cannot, come early tomorrow morning (*dubōiki*).

ker̄e sh̄um̄ilo to, lukuk̄ sh̄ū th̄e, if at any time you get tired, take a little rest (*sh̄um̄ijōiki*).

tus nēi raiō-sinēṭ mā nē p̄arudunus ro uḥuto, until you told me, I haven't (*i.e.* hadn't) heard that he ran (*i.e.* had run) away (*uḥōiki*).

kaikhēn rōs mā waiōikēn pashigo, tsak uthilo, when he saw me coming, he got up (*uthōiki*).

Haiabān, tom di-pūḥo-sā'ti, mā-mālo-sā'ti, tom guṭēr khushānō-sā'ti baiṭo,

Haiabān abode happily in his home with his children and parents (*baiyōiki*).

jawāb dōiki dubālo, he could not give an answer (*dubōiki*).

tēshi ajonō kirtē dito, he fell down from the top of the roof (*dijōiki*).

ro tsago dapēr lañido, he passed through the garden (*lañijōiki*).

ro ma-jo muḥho nifāto, he arrived before me (*nifaiōiki*).

junēk baṭē kiro nikhāto, a snake came out from under the stone (*nikhaiōiki*).

maī hīr pōlo, in my understanding it came into existence, *i.e.* I understood (*pōiki*). (*Hīr* is locative I of *hyūo* or *hīwo*, the heart, mind).

kēsai māḥ diak ē pōn dapēr waii, pfut thē rōlo to, cherūto o han, if any one's mother or daughter come along that road, and, looking away from it (*i.e.* the suspended corpse), wept (*i.e.* weeps), that person is the thief (*rōōiki*).

kaisē shishich bēṭi to, bādshā ginōn, on whosoever head she sat (*i.e.* the hawk may alight), him we shall take as king (*baiyōiki*).

ro waiōikēn būṭē jak tsak uthilē, on his coming all the people stood up (*uthōiki*).

Perfect.

rēsē nōm mā amūṭunus, I have forgotten his name (*āmūshōiki*).

tus nēi raiō-sinēṭ mā nē parudunus ro uḥuto, until you told me, I haven't (*i.e.* hadn't) heard that he had run away (*parujōiki, uḥōiki*).

tu shumiluno to, dūḥēk shū thē, if you have become tired, rest a little (*shumijōiki*).

kaikhēn ro uḥatun baiṭun, when he (has) arrived he (has) sat down (*uḥachōiki, baiyōiki*).

baṭē-jī lēl ditun; gumān bin kākas gala dito bulun, blood has fallen on the stone, (so) the partridge has probably been wounded (*dijōiki, bōiki*).

anēsē aḥhūr fuk pōlun, cataract has made its appearance on his eyes (*i.e.* he has cataract) (*pōiki*).

akhana ros Shinā siḥilun to, kyin mori Shinā rōs nēi thēn, if he has learnt Shinā, why does he never speak it? (*siḥōiki*).

chēi chālīn, mūlaiḥk jālīn, the woman has given birth, and a child has been born (*i.e.* the woman has given birth to a baby girl) (*chōiki, jōiki*).

anē bālī katārgī chhinīṭi, akī nēi chhādīn, this rope was severed with a knife; it was not severed of itself. (*chhīnōiki*, to cut (transitive); *chhīnjōiki*, to become cut, to cut (intransitive). *Chhīnīto* is the past tense passive of *chhīnōiki*, while *chhīdo* is the past tense intransitive).

tēshij sugomich chūnē shudārē baiṭēn, small children have sat down (*i.e.* are seated) on the roof at the smoke-hole (*baiyōiki*).

Pluperfect.

kēkhēn mā āl baiṭusus, du manūjē hai thōjē watē, while I had sat down (*i.e.* was seated) there, two men came running up (*baiyōiki*).

kūṭ dapēr baiṭus, he had sat down (*i.e.* was seated) on the top of the wall (*baiyōiki*).

shudār asul, in shumilus nār afēn, he was (only) a boy, and so he had become tired and fell asleep (*shumijōiki*).

konkoro thē baiḥēs, they had sat down (i.e. were seated) round about (*baiyōiki*).

Imperative.

tu ān bai ro nēi waiō-sinēt, sit down (i.e. remain) here till he comes.

ajēt nikhū, climb up (*nikhaiōiki*).

lōko uchā, flee ye at once (*uchōiki*).

dāmadā baiyā, sit ye down round about.

rēsēt rā, koiñ han, āl bēyut, tell him to stay where he is (lit. where he is, there let him sit down).

mai jēk perwa nish yā ro miriōt yā jōno muchōt, I do not care whether he lives or dies (lit. either let him die, or let him escape alive).

The following are examples of the use of some irregular intransitive verbs :—

1. *bujōiki*, to go.

anēsē bujōikēt rak nish, he does not intend to go.

ai jago-jo o shūo dūr gyē baiyēn, the lad, having gone far from those people, sits down.

bujōikēr anī buḥōt kūlē dēn, on (their) going away, he gives them all grain.

na ro rukhsatij bujōik bēen, na tu, neither you nor he can go on leave.

derum nēi bujō-sin tu ma-kach wā hukam ginōikēt, before you start (lit. up to your not starting) come to me to get an order.

mā akī bujum, I shall go myself.

akhana ro āñ asul to, rō jēr bujē sik, if he were here, he would be very angry (lit. he would go into anger).

mā-ga tu bōn, you and I shall go.

tu Giltēt bujēno-ā ? awa, Giltēt bujumus, are you going to Gilgit ? yes, I am going to Gilgit.

dēo akōt, jēk khōik-kār, jēlēt bujēn, the Dev goes off by himself to the jungle to get something to eat.

kachāk dēzē-jō Zulēkha zindānēt bujīn, in the course of a few days, Zulaikha goes to the prison.

chār būḥēs, cherūtē mōr-ginī, zhataiēr āru bujēnen, at the thief's saying, all the four get into the bag.

Mīr Sāip Nagirēi ma-kach wato ; nēi to mā tēnisēt bujumusus, the Mīr of Nagir came to see me ; otherwise, I would have gone [note the use of the imperfect] to (play) tennis.

chukaii bujēiso, you were going uphill.

bichōikēt gās, I went off to beg.

tu ino gā to, anu dūa raiōje tom jamāatē-wār ʔfū thē, when you go (lit. went from here, repeating this spell, blow towards your wife.

ro ako-shā gō, he went off of his own will (i.e. without permission).

dūt pūchēz āār gōu, the milk went into the boy's mouth.

silēt gauu, he went for a walk.

paisa būḥi waii mukhiy gēi, all the money (fem.) went on the face of the waters (i.e. was wasted).

mā Gilīt nifaiōikè-jo muḥho ro gōun bai, he may have left before I reach Gilgit.

wēa-kār gōun (or *gāun*), he has gone for water.

akhana ro chhūt bul to, mā gyē baiēm, if he comes late, I shall have gone.

pōn fat thē abōm nēi bo, having left the road, do not go across country.

yēr bā, go ye on forward.

chār būṭè ḡhataiēr ārū bujā, all four of you go inside into the bag (i.e. get into it).

yā ro Chilāsèt bujōt yā ro Giltè bēyot, yā muḥho yā fātu rēsēi dushmanīs ro mārēn, let him go to Chilās or let him stay in Gilgit (i.e. whether he goes or stays), sooner or later his enemies will murder him.

2. *mirjōiki*, or *mirjōiki*, to die.

akhana ro mirjē to, rēsē pūḥ, rēsē dishēr Rā baii sik, if he were to die, his son would become Rājā in his place.

bēshak ro mirjēi, of course he will die.

'*mas dam*' *thē nē dēgasus; āshinaiyo baṭ ṣhēchī mūo*, I had not struck (him) saying 'I will strike' (i.e. intentionally); accidentally being hit by a stone he died.

dōik ro mūun, the giver (or debtor) has died.

maṭ lēl nish ro mūun-ā, jōno han, I do not know whether he is dead or alive (lit. 'has he died?, is alive?').

akhana mūs to, rēsē pūḥ rēsē dishēr Rā baii sik, if he had died, his son would have become Rājā in his place.

akhana ro ō chhārē-jo nere gōun to, ēkhēnēr-akī mūs bai, if he has fallen from that cliff, he must have died on the spot.

3. *waiōiki* and *ōiki*, to come.

ani jārē, kiri waiōikēr, dāsē-jo miṣṭi miṣṭi pfunarē walē, Yūsufēt dēēnen, the brothers, on coming down, having brought fine flowers of many kinds from the country, give them to Joseph.

ārū waiōikē-ju muḥhō dārē-'ji dan dan thē, before coming in knock at the door.

mā Chilāsēt waiō-sin ṭhan gumān bin ro aiākēr Giltēt nifaii bai, by the time I arrive at Chilās, he will probably in the meantime reach Gilgit.

derij waii kirtē ho thīn, coming to the window she calls down.

lōṣṭai tū-kach wām, I shall come to you tomorrow.

tu āñ baii ro nēi waiō-sinēt. Ro lōko waii, you will remain here till he comes (lit. up to the time he does not come). He will come soon.

bē rēsē merākēt kyē-bē wōn, why should we come to his court?

tu shabāk āñ baii, mā firijī wāmus, you will sit here a little, I am coming back (i.e. stay here, I shall return).

tu ma-sāati wāano, yā nē, are you coming with me or not?

tu herchhak ma-kach wāno, you are always coming to me.

rīno fatu rōs-ga hai thē gōṭ wān, he too, running after them, comes to the house.

dashtamus anus hai thēgun, anēsēi hēṣṣ (fem.) wān, he looks as if he had run, he is breathing so (lit. I know he has done running, his panting comes).

Astōrijē Giltēt wāanen kūlo harōikē-kār, the Astōris come to Gilgit to buy grain.

lōshṭaiḍēk tu wato to, mas tūt ēk rūpai damus bai, if you come (lit. came) to-morrow, perhaps I shall give (lit. am giving) you a rupee.

o manūjo balā wato, ēk rūpai ḍsēt dōkun, give a rupee to the man who came yesterday (lit. the man came yesterday, to him a rupee is to be given).

tūt damījār (fem.) *watī to, anu ṽfurgo dai*, if trouble comes (lit. came) to you, burn this feather.

kēkhēn mā āl baitusus, du manūjē hai thō-jē watē, while I was seated there, two men came running up.

tu āsh watuno? nē, balā watunus, have you come to-day? no, I have come yesterday.

rōs buyēt thōikēt watun, he has come to make a petition.

akhana rēsēi shāl (fem.) *watin to, rēsēt kwīnēn dē*, if he gets fever (lit. if his fever has come), give him quinine.

āsh rājī būṭē Gilāt der watēn, to-day all the rājās have come into Gilgit.

mā-gē anēsē-kār watusus, I too had come for this purpose.

kēsēt lēl nush, ro koṇo watus, ro koiṇṭē go, no one knows (lit. to any one it is not known) whence he came (lit. had come), or whither he went.

har dēz gōu ma-kach waiōkun, every day (lit. every day went) you must come to me.

āsh balātēt ma-kach wā; dubālo to, chēl bujēt wā, come to me this evening; if you can't, then come early to-morrow morning.

būṭē nalā ma-kach wā, all come to me together.

rēsēt khabar thē, ma-kach wōt, tell him to come to me.

ro-ga wāwōt, let him also come.

ājo wāwōt, yā nē wāwōt, mā zerūr derūt bujum, whether it rains or not (lit. let rain come or let it not come), I am certainly going out.

ajonō āshinaiyo ēk baṭēk ālo, suddenly a stone came down from above.

shishak-gini fakīrēk ālun, a faqīr has come with (i.e. carrying) a head.

D. The Passive Voice.--A transitive verb may be put into the Passive Voice by adding *-ij-* or *-ij-* to the root. Thus, *shidōiki*, to strike, *shidijōiki*, to be struck. The employment of *-ij-* or *-ij-* depends on the stress accent. For instance, in *shidijōiki* the accent is on the *ō*, and therefore we have *-ij-*, with the *i* short, but in *shidījūm*, I shall be struck, the accent is on the *-ij-*, and therefore we have the *i* long. The passive verb so obtained is then conjugated like a derivative intransitive verb in *-ijōiki*. It thus occurs that it is often difficult to say whether a given verb in *-ijōiki* is intransitive or passive. In a few verbs there is, however, a difference of form. Colonel Lorimer gives the following:—

mirōiki, mirjōiki, or mirījōiki, to die.

mārōiki, to kill (causal).

mārijōiki, to be killed (passive of causal).

nikhaiōiki, to get out of.

nikhalōiki, to turn out, extract (causal).

nikalījōiki, to be turned out, extracted, etc. (passive of causal).

The verb *chhīnōiki*, to cut, has *chhīnijōiki* both for its intransitive (to cut, become

cut of itself) and for its passive (to be cut by some one) forms, but these differ in the past participle. Thus:—

chhīnājēn, cuts (of itself) (intr.), or it is being cut (by some one) (pass.).

chhīdo, it cut (of itself), it broke (intr.).

chhīnāto, it was cut (by some one) (pass.).

We have seen (p. 364) that most intransitive verbs in *-ājōiki* form the past participle in *-do*. Thus, *ferājōiki*, to turn round, has *ferādo*. Passive verbs generally form their past participles in *-to*, not *-do*, as in *chhīnāto*, above, but the termination *-do* is sometimes used.

The past participle is frequently used as a simple adjective, as in *chhīnātī bālī*, the cut rope. When the *-to* of the past participle is changed to *-tuk* (i.e. with the suffix of unity added), the word becomes a substantive, as in *thītuk* (from *thōiki*), a (or the) thing done, an act; *raiītuk*, a (or the) thing said, an injunction.

As in Indian languages, the use of the passive voice is rare, and the only examples that I have noted are all in tenses formed from the past participle, although I know of no prohibition to the use of the other tenses. The following is a list of passive forms that have been noted by me:—

ACTIVE.		PASSIVE.
	Infinitive.	Past participle.
<i>chhīnōiki</i> , to cut (something).	<i>chhīnājōiki</i>	<i>chhīnāto</i>
<i>dōiki</i> , to give, to strike.	<i>dījōiki</i>	<i>dīto</i>
<i>raiōiki</i> , to say.	<i>raiājōiki</i>	<i>raiito</i>
<i>shidōiki</i> , to strike.	<i>shidājōiki</i>	<i>shidito</i>
<i>thōiki</i> , to do, make.	<i>thijōiki</i>	<i>thīto</i>
<i>kamōiki</i> , to spend.	<i>kamājōiki</i>	<i>kamido</i>
<i>mārōiki</i> , to kill.	<i>mārājōiki</i>	<i>mārīdo</i>
<i>pālōiki</i> , to rub on.	<i>pālājōiki</i>	<i>pālido</i>

The following are examples of the use of these passive verbs in tenses formed from the past participle:—

anē bālī katār-gē chhīnātī, aki nēi chhīdēn, this rope was cut with a knife; it did not cut (i.e., break) of itself.

o gala dīto parulo bē yaiyen, he walks as if he were wounded (lit. being like a wounded person).

ro Mīr Sāipē shadarē hatē-jo turi-gēni shidītun, he has been beaten by the Mīr Sāhib's servant with a whip. Here we have an example of the rule that when a personal agent is expressed in connexion with a passive verb, this is done by the aid of the phrase '*hatē-jo*', by the hand of.

Mīr Sāip tom shadarē zhēk thītuj (= *thīto* + *ajē*) *ʔfītīk bul*, the Mīr Sāhib was displeased at something which his servant had done (lit. displeased on something done of the servant).

achāk bōdo kamōiki nē asul. Mas jēk tham? Guṭē-kār kamido, you should not have spent so much. What am I to do? It was expended for the house (hold).

ro dīru-gē mārīdo, he was killed by a bullet.

koeri-'j tók palūdun, (your) boots are muddy (lit. mud is smeared on the boots).
zhèk tus raiztuk mà pàrudus, I have heard what you say. Note here that *tus* is
 in the agent case, although *raiztuk* is passive. This is the rule in such cases.

Khudaiè shukur thaii thituk, thanks be Thine, O God, for what Thou hast done.

Here, by an alternative idiom, *thaii* is in the genitive.

E. The Causal Voice.—A causal verb is made by adding the syllable *er* or *ar* (or, when the accent falls on it, *èr*) to the root of the primary verb. If the root ends in a vowel, the contiguous vowels usually coalesce, but the typical *r* remains unchanged. If the primary verb is intransitive, the causal formed from it is usually an active causal, as in *nikhaiōiki*, to come out, causal *nikhairōiki*, to cause to come out, to take out. If the primary verb is transitive, the causal usually implies the passive of the primary verb, as in *mārōiki*, to kill, causal *màrarōiki*, to cause to be killed, to have killed. There are, as in India, some irregular causals. One of these is *mārōiki*, to kill, just mentioned, which, itself is the causal of *mirōiki*, to die. Another is *nikhaiōiki*, to emerge, causal *nikhalōiki*, to extract, beside *nikhairōiki*, to cause to emerge. *Nikhalōiki* has, itself, a double causal *nikhalerōiki*, to cause to be extracted. I have no record of other irregular causals, but they probably exist.

In some cases double causals may be formed by doubling the *-èr*-. Colonel Lorimer gives the following example:—

pachōiki, to ripen, to be in the process of being cooked, to cook (intr.).

causal *pacherōiki*, to cook (something), as in *tus tèn tiki pachèrè*, cook some food now.

double causal *pachererōiki*, to cause to be cooked, as in *tus tèn tiki tom shaderè hatè-jo pachèrerè*, have some food now cooked by your servant.

The following are examples of causal verbs:—

Primary verb.	Causal verb.
<i>banōiki</i> , to clothe (oneself).	<i>banerōiki</i> , to put (clothes on another person).
<i>chèlōiki</i> , to proceed.	<i>chèlerōiki</i> , to cause to proceed, to carry on (affairs).
<i>dōiki</i> , to give.	<i>derōiki</i> , to cause to be given, to put.
<i>ganōiki</i> , to fix.	<i>ganerōiki</i> , to cause to be fixed.
<i>ginōiki</i> , to take, buy.	<i>ginerōiki</i> , to cause to be bought.
<i>kudjōiki</i> , to be lame.	<i>kuderōiki</i> , to lame.
<i>khōiki</i> , to eat.	<i>khaierōiki</i> , to give (food) to be eaten, to feed.
<i>mirōiki</i> , to die.	<i>mārōiki</i> , to kill.
<i>mārōiki</i> , to kill.	<i>màrarōiki</i> , to cause to be killed.
<i>nikhaiōiki</i> , to emerge.	<i>nikhairōiki</i> , to cause to emerge.
<i>nikhalōiki</i> , to extract.	<i>nikhalerōiki</i> , to cause to be extracted.
<i>pōiki</i> , to drink.	<i>pierōiki</i> , to give to be drunk, to give to drink.
<i>pashōiki</i> , to see.	<i>pasherōiki</i> , to cause to be seen, to show.
<i>raiōiki</i> , to say, to recite.	<i>rēirōiki</i> , to cause to be said, to cause to be recited.

sāōiki, to sew.

shidōiki, to strike.

thōiki, to do.

walōiki, to bring.

sāerōiki, to get sewn.

shiderōiki, to have (a person) beaten.

therōiki, to cause to be done.

walerōiki, to cause to be brought, to obtain.

The following are examples of the use of these causal verbs:—

Jibrāil tom chandè-jo mişhtë mişhtë çhâlè nikhalè, Yusufèt banerèn, Gabriel, having taken fine clothes of various kinds from his pocket, puts (them) on Joseph.

anī ashrafîè ginī anè jerīs tōm guṭēi kōm mişṭuk thē chēlerîn, taking the ashrafīs, the old woman carries on the affairs of her house well.

tèn lōilyo āshpich tīlèn derōkun, now the saddle is to be put on the red horse (i.e. have the red horse saddled now).

anèsè-jo fatu mas tom āshpo sārpe gānerum, in future I shall have shoes fixed on my horse (i.e. I shall have him shod).

anī khachī bām maṭ ginerēguno, you have made this worthless mare bought to me (i.e., you have made me buy it).

anu āshpo tus kuḍerēguno, you have lamed this horse.

yèr thē āshpèt waii pīerè, fatu baspūr khaierè, first make water to be drunk to the horse, afterwards make grain to be eaten to it (i.e. first water the horse, then feed it).

rōs Mīr Sāipè shadarè hatè-jo tumakè dīdū-gī (or dīrū-gī) ako mārārēgo, he has had himself killed with a gun-bullet by the Mīr Sāhib's servant.

ro mas tom tsagè-jo nikhairum, I will make him get out of my garden.

ro mas tom tsagè-jo nikhalerum, I will have him removed from my garden.

āshpo cho thē, herī sīnich, mas tuṭ waii pīeram, gallop your horse, bringing it to the river, and I will give you water to drink.

rēsèt pasherè anu kōm zhèk chukuj thèn to thēi, show him how to do this job (lit. show him how one does it, so that he may do it).

chūno barōṭ sūnçho hīwo-gī kalīma rēirēnen, they cause to young and old the creed to be recited with a sincere heart (i.e. they made young and old recite it).

mas akō-kār çhâlè derzīè hatè-jo sīerumus, I am having clothes sewn for myself by the tailor.

akhana tus anu kōm thēgà to, mās tu kūrī shiderum, if you do this, I will have you severely beaten.

tus tom hatè-jo baièk asul tushār damijār therēguno, you have caused me as much trouble as possible.

cherūtus ajōnī chēlak-gī mās sharminda therēgo, the thief (has) caused me (to be) ashamed (i.e. has put me to shame) by an extraordinary trick.

mas tèn-akī è chēi tūt shō theram, I shall now at once get that woman to accept you.

ma-kār Kashgārè-jo rōs èk mişṭo āshpo walerēgun, he has had brought (i.e. obtained) a good horse for me from Kashgar.

V. INDECLINABLES.—The negative particle is *nè*, *nē*, *nèi*, or *nēi*, not. It may also be used to mean 'is not', as in *anè maii dī nè*, this is not my daughter. The same words are used to mean 'no'. A stronger negative is *nèya*, not at all, or 'O, no'. 'Yes' is *awa*. 'Neither . . . nor' is *na . . . na*.

The word for 'and' or 'both . . . and' is *ga* or *gè*. It is used enclitically after the first of the conjoined members, and may be repeated after the second. Colonel Lorimer gives as examples :—*mà-ga tu bōn*, I and you shall go; *mà-ga ro-ga baiyà bōn*, both I and he shall go. The same word is also used with the meaning of 'and also' 'too' as in *kīno àshpo walè*, *lōilo-ga walè*, bring the black horse, and also bring the bay.

We have seen above (p. 351) that when the particle *à* is appended to the future tense of a verb, it gives it a subjunctive force. This particle is also employed to indicate direct interrogation, when there is no definite interrogative word in the sentence. In this case it is usually appended to the last word in the sentence, which is generally the verb, as in *tu Giltèt bujèno-à*, are you going to Gilgit? If there is an alternative, it is usually appended only to the first element, as in *ro watun-à*, *nei watun*, has he come or not?

The particle *to* is of very frequent occurrence in *Shinā*, and is, I believe, the same as the termination *-ta* of the polite present imperative of *Kāshmīrī*, as in *wuchh-ta*, please to see, or, as we should say in English 'just see'. In *Shinā* it is put at the end of the phrase, *i.e.* generally immediately after the verb, and its effect seems to be to give a slight element of hesitation or doubt to the whole clause. Thus, *anī paisa fash bil to*, *nēi jèk thōn*, (when) this money became (*i.e.* is) expended, then what shall we do? Note that *to* does not here mean 'then', as we might think from the analogy of Hindi. That word is supplied by *nēi*, which is here an adverb of time with that meaning. The *to* belongs to the first clause, and here really means 'when', with the additional idea of uncertainty as to how long the money will last. Or, again, it may, like the English suffix '-ever' be employed to give an indefinite force to an interrogative pronoun, as in *mà kōs paida thēgun to*, *o Dabōnsè maṭ rizek dēn*, whoever has created me, that Lord gives me my daily food. But *to* most often occurs in the protasis, or if-clause, of a conditional sentence, the word 'if' being indicated at the beginning of the clause by *akhana*. Thus, *akhana rōs ādè rāan to*, *khaltē rāan*, if he speaks so, he lies. Sometimes *akhana* is omitted, and the whole burden of the 'if' is thrown upon the *to*, as in *oyāno hano to*, *tūt khurma bōdo vīum*, if you are hungry, I will throw down lots of dates for you.

If the conditional sentence is such a one as we would require the use of 'would' or 'would have' in English, the word *sik* is appended to the apodosis, or then-clause, as in *akhana ro mūo to*, *rèsè pūṭh rèsè dishèr Rā baii. sik*, if he died, his son would become Rājā in his place. Or again, *akhana mūus (sik) to*, *rèsè pūṭh rèsè dishèr Rā baii sik*, if he had died, his son would have become Rājā in his place. As in the last example, *sik* may sometimes also be optionally inserted in the protasis, without affecting the meaning.

From several of the above examples, it may be noted that there is a marked tendency in *Shinā* to put the verb of the protasis in the past indicative, where we, in English, should use the present indicative or the phrase 'were to' or the auxiliary 'should'.

Sometimes, but much more rarely, *to* is used, as in Hindī, to introduce a new article in a sequence. In such cases it begins, not concludes a clause, and may be translated, as in Hindī by 'then'. Thus :—

fat chūpèr bādshās 'Khudaiya, anè kachèrèk bôt', thē, dam dēn ; to aiāko-majā bādshāè jamāat ān-ān thē kachèrè bīn, finally, the king saying 'O God, may this woman become a mule', blows (towards her); then, on this (or 'thereupon', aiāko-majā), the king's wife, saying 'hee-haw', becomes a mule.

I owe the following version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son into Şhinā, to the kindness of Colonel Lorimer. It was made by Sarfarāz, son of Bakhtawār, a Kachatei Yashkun of Gilgit, and was revised by Colonel Lorimer. Attention must be drawn to the laxity in regard to vowel sounds, to which, especially in the conjugation of verbs, reference has been made on p. 352 *ante*. In several instances, the spelling of declensional and conjugational forms in this specimen will be found to differ slightly from those given in the preceding pages. There is, however, nothing which need cause difficulty.

DARDIC SUB-FAMILY.

DARD GROUP.

SHINĀ.

(Lieutenant-Colonel D. L. E. Lorimer, C.I.E., 1923.)

Ko-manūjakaii dū dārè asil. Chūno pūḥsè mālèt rēgo,
Of-a-certain-man two sons were. The-small son to-the-father said,
 ‘ala bābo, thaii-jābè-jo jèk bāguk maṭ nifaien-to maṭ dē,’
‘O father, from-thy-property what a-share to-me may-arrive to-me give,’
 thèn. Mālus tōm jap dāruṭ samarēgu. Nè bōdo
he-says. The-father his-own property to-the-sons divided. Then many
 dēzi majā nè gyēès, chūno pūḥsè tōm
days in-the-midst not had-gone, the-small son his-own
 būto-jèk gaṭi thē (or sīnalē) dūr-kūyèkèt
every-what (i.e. everything) collected having-made (or having-collected) to-a-far-country
 jas bē gōu. Nè āl tōm jap
setting-out having-become went. Then there his-own property
 khacho-yaiyōiki-’jè naiēgo. Nèi karē-gè jèk hano būto
on-bad-proceeding he-lost (i.e. wasted). Then as-soon-as what is all
 karanēgus-to, ē-kūyèr kūri kōner pōlo (or wato). Dugūnyo
he-had-expended, in-that-country strong famine occurred (or came). Again
 nè ro yūḥo bulo; ē-kūyè èk-manūjèkè-kachi gōu.
then he destitute became; of-that-country to-beside-a-man he-went.
 Rōs ro tōm-ḥēḥur sūri chararōikèt ḥanigu. Nè rèsè-hīēi
He him in-his-own-fields swine for-to-make-graze sent. Then of-his-heart
 gunāo asu ki kèi kōiē sūris khāanis ainè-jo tōm
the-desire was that what pods the-swine used-to-eat them-from his-own
 dēr shak thōiki; kōs-gè rèsèt jèkèk nè dēnis. Nè
belly full to-make; anyone to-him anything not used-to-give. Then
 rōs hōshar waii rēgu ki, ‘maii-mālè kachāk-būoṭ
he in-sense having-come said that, ‘of-my-father to-how-many-hired-labourers
 tiki pasōm-nishi-’j laiik bin, nè mà ān oyāno mirijumus.
food on-grudging-there-is-not obtainable becomes, and I here hungry am-dying.
 Mà uthēi tōm-mālè-kachi bujam, nè rèsèt rāam, “ala
I having-arisen to-beside-my-own-father will-go, then to-him I-will-say, “O
 bābo, mà Khudā (or āsmānēi) muḥho nèi thaii-āḥhīè muḥho dōjopōlo
father, I God (or of-heaven) before then-again of-thy-eyes before sinful
 bulus; anè yashiki fat nèi bigas ki, ‘nè mà thaii
became; of-this worthy remaining not I-have-become that. ‘again I thy

pūch hanus' thē, raiōiki. Mā tōmo būē parulē the."'
son am' having-said, to-say. Me thy-own hired-labourers like make'''.

Ani mōrē anu pūchēsē akōshā tōm-hīar rās. Ālo
These words this son of-himself in-his-own-heart was-saying. Thence
fatu ro uthēi tōm-mālē-kach gauu. Ro darum dūr
after he having-arisen to-beside-his-own-father went. He yet distant
asul ki, ro pāshī, rēsē-mālei hīar jāk āli (or nīrei watī),
was when, him having-seen, of-his-father in-the-heart pity came (or compassion came).

Mālus, hai thē, tōm pūch walē, shōtar
The-father, running having-done, his-own son having-brought, on(-his-own)-neck
vīgu.

Nē rēsē tōm-pūchē
threw (i.e. drawing his son to him clasped him to his neck). Then his of-his-own-son

mukhi-'j āchhiu-'j bōchē dēgu. Pūchēsē mālēt rēgu, 'ala bābo,
on-the-face on-the-eyes kisses gave. The-son to-the-father said, 'O father,
mā āsmān-gē thēi-āchhiē muḥho dōjopōlo bulus; anē yashki nē
I heaven-and of-thy-eye before sinful became; of-this worthy not
bīgas ki, "nē mā thāi pūch hanus" thē, raiōiki.'
I-have-become that, "again I thy son am" having-said, to-say.'

Mālus tōm-shadarut rāan ki, 'miṣṭi-jo miṣṭē chhilē lōko
The-father to-his-own-servants says that, 'than-good good clothes quickly
nikhalē maii-chūno-pūchēt banarā, nē rēsei-hatar barōno
having-taken-out to-my-small-son cause-ye-to-be-put-on, then on-his-hand ring
thariā, nē pāwur paizārē banaryā', thēn.
cause-ye-to-be-done, then on-feet shoes cause-ye-to-be-put-on', he-says.

Mālus nēi rāan shadarut, 'unito ro batso walē halāl
The-father then says to-servants, 'nurtured that calf having-brought slain
thēā, tā-ke bēs khyē shuriār thōn; kyē-to maii anu
make-ye, so-that we having-eaten rejoicing may-make; because my this
pūch mūs, thēn jōno bulu; naiyito bulus, thēn laiak bulu'.
son had-died, now alive became; lost had-become, now found became'.

Ālo fatu ris shuriār thōiki shātē.
Thence after they rejoicing to-make began.

Ekhyēn anisē baro pūch chēchar asul. Ro waii
At-that-time of-this-one elder son in-field was. He having-come
guṭē-kachi uḥāto. Gaiē dōikē shōno parudo. Nē
house-near arrived. Songs of-giving the-sound he-heard. Then
tōm-ēk-shadarēkēt khujōik shāto ki, 'nē jēkēk bīn.' Rōs
to-his-own-one-servant to-enquire he-began that, 'this a-what becomes?' He

rèsèt rēgu, 'thaii jā watun, nè thaii mālus unito
to-him said, 'thy brother has-come, then thy father the-nurtured
 batso halāl tharēgun, anèsè-kāri ki ro
calf slain has-caused-to-be-made, this-on-account that that
 chūno pūḥ miṣṭeri-'j lēgo.' Baro pūḥ
small son on-goodness (i.e. well) he-found.' The-elder son
 rōṣh bēen, guṭèt āru bujōiki rak nè thēgu. Magar rēsēi
anger became, to-the-house into to-go intention not he-made. But his
 mālo daru gyē baro pūḥ mōrar-tharēn.
father out having-gone the-elder son in-word-causes-to-be-made (i.e. entreats).
 Rōs tōm-mālei raiitikèr rēgo ki, 'ḥakè, achāk-barījar
He of-his-own-father on-the-said (-thing) said that, 'look, in-so-many-years
 mas thaii kōm thamus, mas karē-gè thaii-raiituk nè nè
I thy work am-doing, I at-any-time (to-) thy-a-said (-thing) not "no"
 thēganus; magar maṭè tusè karē-gè èk-aiēi chālak-gè nèi
have-said; but to-me thou at-any-time of-one-she-goat a-kid-even not
 digà ki mas tōm-shugūlo-sāati shuriār tham (or tharum)-sik.
gavest that I my-own-friends-with rejoicing may-make (or cause-to-be-made).
 Karē-gè thaii anu pūḥ wato, kōs thaii jap khacho-kōmèr
As-soon-as thy this son come, who thy property in-evil-work
 (or kanchanio fatu) naiēgo, tus rēsè kār tus unito
(or harlots after) lost (i.e. wasted), thou of-him for-the-sake thou the-nurtured
 batso halāl tharēgà.' Mālus baro-pūḥèt rāan, 'ala
calf slain hast-caused-to-be-made.' The-father to-the-elder-son says, 'O
 pūḥ, tu har ohhak ma kach hano; nè maii jèk hanuk
son, thou every day me with art; and-then mine whatever is-thing
 o thaii akī han. Nè shuriār tharōiki, shuriār bōiki
that thine one is. Then rejoicing to-cause-to-be-made, rejoicing to-be
 yaṣṭhi asil, "ki" thēgà-to, thaii anu jā mūs,
proper was, "why?" if-thou-say (i.e. because), thy this brother had-died,
 thèn jōno bulo; naiēgasis, thèn lēganis (or naiitus,
now alive became; we-had-lost, now we-have-found (or he-had-been lost,
 thèn laiito)', thèn.
now he-was-found)', he-says.

**STANDARD LIST OF WORDS AND SENTENCES
IN THE ŞHINĀ OF GILGIT LANGUAGE.**

English.	Şhinā.	English.	Şhinā.
1. One . . .	ək.	24. Of you . . .	tsai, tsaii.
2. Two . . .	du.	25. Your . . .	tsai, tsaii.
3. Three . . .	q̄hēi.	26. He . . .	ro, o, rōs, ōs.
4. Four . . .	ohār.	27. Of him . . .	rēsē, rēsēi, èsē, èsēi.
5. Five . . .	pōī, (<i>Puniālī</i>) push.	28. His . . .	rēsē, rēsēi, èsē, èsēi.
6. Six . . .	q̄hā.	29. They . . .	rī, rīs, ai, aisē.
7. Seven . . .	sat.	30. Of them . . .	rīno, rīnēi, aino, ainēi.
8. Eight . . .	aşh, (<i>Puniālī</i>) aşht.	31. Their . . .	rīno, rīnēi, aino, ainēi.
9. Nine . . .	nau.	32. Hand . . .	hat.
10. Ten . . .	daii.	33. Foot . . .	pā.
11. Twenty . . .	bī.	34. Nose . . .	natho.
12. Fifty . . .	dī bu-ga dai.	35. Eye . . .	āq̄hi, āq̄hi.
13. Hundred . . .	shal.	36. Mouth . . .	aī, aī.
14. I . . .	mā, mas.	37. Tooth . . .	dōn.
15. Of me . . .	mai, maii.	38. Ear . . .	kōn.
16. Mine . . .	mai, maii.	39. Hair . . .	jakur, (<i>a single hair</i>) bālo.
17. We . . .	bē, bēs.	40. Head . . .	şhişh.
18. Of us . . .	asaī, asaii.	41. Tongue . . .	jip.
19. Our . . .	asaī, asaii.	42. Belly . . .	dēr.
20. Thou . . .	tu, tus.	43. Back . . .	piṭ.
21. Of thee . . .	thai, thaii.	44. Iron . . .	chimar, chīmar.
22. Thine . . .	thai, thaii.	45. Gold . . .	son.
23. You . . .	tso, tsos.	46. Silver . . .	rūp.

English.	Shiqā.	English.	Shiqā.
47. Father	bābo, mālo.	73. Duck	bārūsh.
48. Mother	āje, mā.	74. Ass	jakun.
49. Brother	jā.	75. Camel	ūṭ.
50. Sister	sā.	76. Bird	chaiṛ.
51. Man	manūjo, mushā.	77. Go	bujōiki (<i>infinitive</i>).
52. Woman	chēi, (<i>dialectic</i>) chēi.	78. Eat	khōiki (<i>infinitive</i>).
53. Wife	gyēn, grēn, jamāat.	79. Sit	baiōiki (<i>infinitive</i>).
54. Child	shudār.	80. Come	waiōiki (<i>infinitive</i>).
55. Son	pūch	81. Beat	shidōiki, dōiki (<i>infinitives</i>)
56. Daughter	dī.	82. Stand	tsak bōiki (<i>infinitive</i>).
57. Slave	dimālo, maristan.	83. Die	mirjōiki, mirijōiki (<i>infinitives</i>).
58. Cultivator	84. Give	dōiki (<i>infinitive</i>).
59. Shepherd	peyālo.	85. Run	hai thoiki (<i>infinitive</i>).
60. God	Khudā, Dabōn.	86. Up	ajē.
61. Devil	Shētān.	87. Near	kach.
62. Sun	sūri.	88. Down	kiri.
63. Moon	yūn.	89. Far	dūr.
64. Star	tāro.	90. Before	yēr.
65. Fire	agār.	91. Behind	fatṭi.
66. Water	waii.	92. Who?	ko.
67. House	gōṭ.	93. What?	jèk.
68. Horse	āshpo.	94. Why?	kyè.
69. Cow	gāo, gō ^u , gō.	95. And	-ga.
70. Dog	shū.	96. But	magar, ama.
71. Cat	būshi.	97. If	akhana.
72. Cock	kūkurjcho.	98. Yes	awa.

English.	Shinā.	English.	Shinā.
99. No . . .	nè, nèi, nāya.	125. Of good men . . .	miṣṭṭè manūjo.
100. Alas . . .	gīrpā.	126. To good men . . .	miṣṭṭè manūjūt.
101. A father . . .	bābo, bābus.	127. From good men . . .	miṣṭṭè manūju-jo.
102. Of a father . . .	bābè, bābei	128. A good woman . . .	èk miṣṭṭi chèi (or chèièk).
103. To a father . . .	bābèt.	129. A bad boy . . .	èk khacho shāo.
104. From a father . . .	bābè-jo.	130. Good women . . .	miṣṭṭè chèiè.
105. Two fathers . . .	du bābè.	131. A bad girl . . .	èk khachi mulaii (or mulaièk).
106. Fathers . . .	bābè, bābès.	132. Good . . .	miṣṭṭo.
107. Of fathers . . .	bābo.	133. Better . . .	(rèsè-jo) miṣṭṭo (better than that).
108. To fathers . . .	bābot, bābut.	134. Best . . .	(būtè-jo or butiè-jo) miṣṭṭo (best of all).
109. From fathers . . .	bābo-jo, bābu-jo.	135. High . . .	uthalo.
110. A daughter . . .	dī, dis	136. Higher . . .	(rèsè-jo) uthalo.
111. Of a daughter . . .	dījēi.	137. Highest . . .	(būtè-jo) uthalo.
112. To a daughter . . .	dījèt.	138. A horse . . .	āshpo.
113. From a daughter . . .	dījè-jo.	139. A mare . . .	bām.
114. Two daughters . . .	du dijārè.	140. Horses . . .	āshpè.
115. Daughters . . .	dijārè, dijārès.	141. Mares . . .	bāmè.
116. Of daughters . . .	dijāro.	142. A bull . . .	dōno.
117. To daughters . . .	dijārūt.	143. A cow . . .	gāo, gō ⁿ , gō.
118. From daughters . . .	dijāru-jo.	144. Bulls . . .	dōnè.
119. A good man . . .	èk miṣṭṭo manūjo (or manūjuk).	145. Cows . . .	gawè, go.
120. Of a good man . . .	èk miṣṭṭo manūjè.	146. A dog . . .	shū.
121. To a good man . . .	èk miṣṭṭo manūjèt.	147. A bitch . . .	sonchī shū.
122. From a good man . . .	èk miṣṭṭo manūjè-jo.	148. Dogs . . .	shūi, shūwi.
123. Two good men . . .	du miṣṭṭè manūjè.	149. Bitches . . .	sonchè shūwi.
124. Good men . . .	miṣṭṭè manūjè.	150. A he goat . . .	mūgar.

English.	Shinā.	English.	Shinā.
151. A female goat . . .	ai.	228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.	mas èsè pūchè bōdo muṣh-takā dēgunus (<i>lit. I have pummelled his son severely with fists</i>).
152. Goats	mūgarī, lachè.	229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.	rōsè māl chīṣhè charūj charēin.
153. A male deer	230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.	rōsè o tomè kir àshpij pīnēgun. (pīnōiki, <i>to mount on; is treated as a transitive verb without a direct object.</i>)
154. A female deer	231. His brother is taller than his sister.	èsēi jā tomī saie-jo jigo han.
155. Deer	232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.	èsēi gāch du rūpaiè-ga trañ hani.
156—219. ...	For the conjugation of the verb, see Grammar.	233. My father lives in that small house.	maī bābo o chūno guṭer baiyēn.
220. What is your name ?	thaii nōm jèk 'an ?	234. Give this rupee to him	anè rūpai èsèt dè.
221. How old is this horse?	anu àshpo kachāk barijo han ? (<i>of how many years is this horse ?</i>)	235. Take those rupees from him.	ai rūpaiè rèsè-jo gin.
222. How far is it from here to Kashmir ?	āno Kashirètè kachāk dūr hanī ?	236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.	o miṣhtuk thè ṣhidè bālī-gi ganè.
223. How many sons are there in your father's house ?	thaii bābēi guṭer dārè kachāk hanè ?	237. Draw water from the well.	daljè-jo (<i>from the irrigation channel</i>) waii nikhalè.
224. I have walked a long way to-day.	mā àsh jigāh gatal gānus.	238. Walk before me	ma-jo yèr yaii.
225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.	maī chūno mālēi pūchèt o mushaiè sà gar thè àtēgèn (<i>marrying, they have brought the sister of that man to the son of my father's younger brother.</i>)	239. Whose boy comes behind you ?	kèsè shūo tu-jo fatu wāan ?
226. In the house is the saddle of the white horse.	guṭer shēo àshpēi tilèn han.	240. From whom did you buy that ?	kèsè-jo anè gāch ginigāno ?
227. Put the saddle upon his back.	èsij tilèn dè.	241. From a shopkeeper of the village.	hètēi hètēwālè-jo.

VOLUME X.

Page 123, line 8.—In the Addenda to Volume VIII, Part ii (*ante*, p. 247), I have expressed my gratitude to Dr. Morgenstierne for much information there given regarding the more western Dardic languages. In Volume X I have given a pretty full account of the Ōrmuṛī language as spoken at Kaniguram in Waziristān. On page 123, speaking of other localities in which that language might be expected to be found, I said 'In the Logar Valley, in some villages, the Ōrmuṛs speak Persian, while in others,—Leech mentions the village of Barak,—they have retained their own form of speech.' Leech was writing nearly a century ago, and since then no further information has been received about Ōrmuṛī in Afghanistan proper. This want has now also been filled by Dr. Morgenstierne, who has added to his previous kindness by sending me the following information collected by him during his stay in Kābul. He also sends me a note on Parāchī, an allied language also spoken in Afghanistan. He writes as follows:—

ŌRMUṚĪ OF LOGAR.

At the present day Ōrmuṛī is spoken by only a few people of the older generation at Barakī Barak in the Logar Valley. At Butkhāk (some miles east of Kābul) there are people who belong to the Ōrmuṛ tribe; but they have given up their native language and speak Paṣhtō.

The Ōrmuṛī of Logar preserves a palatal *sh* in many cases where the dialect of Kanigrām [*i.e.* Kaniguram] has *s*; but on the other hand it makes no distinction between *sh* and *shr*. The complicated system of verbal stems has been such simplified, and the vocabulary has undergone a strong Pārsi influence.

The First Sentences of the Parable in Ōrmuṛī of Logar.

Ta-*shē* sarai dō klān būk. Afō zārī klānak ta-*khūy* pē kī
Of-one man two sons were. The younger boy of-himself father to
ghōk, 'ai pē, tar-tū ta-māl artsa takhsīm tar-mūn bu-sē, ku-mūn kī
said, 'O father, of-thee of-property whatever part of-me is, to-me to
ar-shēr.' A sarai ta-khūy ta-klān minzi-ne ta-khūy a māl dō takhsīm
give.' The man of-himself of-sons middle-to of-himself the property two parts
dāk. Tsōnd rōsh pēts ta-khūy a zārī klān ta-khūy a māl
made. Some days afterwards of-himself the younger son of-himself the property
tōl dāk; pēts rāi-nē ai-tsawōk, pēts jāi-nē al-tsawōk.
collected made; then road-to he-went, then a-place-to he-went.

In the above, the letter *ā* is sounded as a deep *ā* like the Swedish long *a*.

PARĀCHĪ.

This language is mentioned by Bābur ('Memoirs', p. 225, Leyden's and Erskine's trans., ed. King), and Masson ('Narrative of various journeys in Baluchistan, Afghanistan, and the Punjab'). It is spoken in Ghujulān in Dārre-i-ghosh in Nijrau,

in Pachaghān in Tagau, and, with some dialectic difference in the Shutul Valley north of Gulbahār, where the people are said to have come from Nijrau. Formerly it is said to have been in use in Panjshīr, and the name of the village Parachi in the Paghmān Hills, west of Kābul, may indicate that the tribe was also once settled there.

Like Ōrmurī, with which language it presents some striking similarities, it shows some 'West-Iranian' features; but it is also closely connected with Minjānī [the 'Munjānī' of the Survey] and the Pāmīr dialects. I hope to be able to demonstrate that neither Ōrmurī nor Parāchī are recent immigrants from Western Iran, but are the remnants of the old Iranian languages spoken in Eastern Afghanistan before the advent of the 'Sakic' Paṣhtō language.

Parāchī has been very deeply influenced by Pashāi, not only in its vocabulary, but also in its morphology and phonology. Especially striking is the adoption of aspirates, not only in loanwords, but even in original Parāchī words, through a kind of transposition. E.g. *gurum*, I seize, but *ghīt*, seized, from **grifta-*, **gift*, **giht*; *pechem*, I cook, but *phōk*, cooked, from **pakhva-*, **pakk*.

The First Sentences of the Parable in Parāchī of Shutul.

Zhū ādam dī push dērō-bōn. Push-e-chīnō bāw-kun-ē jaṛī, 'ai
 One man two sons had. Son-which-younger father-to-his said, 'O
 bāw, havī māl-a takhsīm kan, ma-kān hisāb da.' Bāw māl-e-
 father, this property-thy division make, me-to share give.' The-father pro-
khukā takhsīm kuṛ, zaghān-e-khukā-kun-ē dā. Chā rūch pēsh
 perty-which-his-own division made, boys-which-his-own-to-he gave. Some days after-
 chhān push-e-chīnō-ē mālān-ē jam kōṛ, mulk-e-derīn tar rawān
 wards son-which-younger-his goods-his collected made, country-which-far to starting
 chhī.
 went.

Dr. Morgenstierne tells me that, before *n* and *m* the sound of *ā* is 'darker' than in other positions. Thus, the two *ās* in *mākḥān*, ours, are not quite the same. He has also provided the following lists of words in these two languages.

English.	Ormuzi of Logar.	Parāchī.	English.	Ormuzi of Logar.	Parāchī.
1. One . .	shē . . .	zhū.	26. He . .	afō . . .	ēdē.
2. Two . .	dō . . .	dī.	27. Of him . .	afō . . .	ēdē.
3. Three . .	shō . . .	shī.	28. His . .	tar-afō . . .	ēdān.
4. Four . .	tsār . . .	chör.	29. They . .	afō . . .	ēdānān.
5. Five . .	pēnts . . .	pōnch.	30. Of them . .	afō . . .	ēdānān.
6. Six . .	sho . . .	khī.	31. Their	ēdānān.
7. Seven . .	wā . . .	hōt.	32. Hand . .	dest, kaf . .	dōst.
8. Eight . .	āsht . . .	ōsht.	33. Foot . .	pāi . . .	pā.
9. Nine . .	nā . . .	nō.	34. Nose . .	nīni . . .	nēsht.
10. Ten . .	das . . .	dōs.	35. Eye . .	tsimī . . .	techh.
11. Twenty . .	jist . . .	ghosht.	36. Mouth . .	pōz . . .	shōnd.
12. Fifty . .	pandzāstu . .	pinjā.	37. Tooth . .	gishī . . .	danān.
13. Hundred . .	sō . . .	pōnz ^h ghoshtak, sō.	38. Ear . .	gōi . . .	gū.
14. I . .	az . . .	ān.	39. Hair . .	dri . . .	dōzh, jāl, (<i>singio</i> <i>hair</i>) gīnō.
15. Of me . .	mun . . .	man.	40. Head . .	sar . . .	sōr.
16. Mine . .	tar-mūn . . .	manān.	41. Tongue . .	zubān . . .	bān.
17. We . .	mākh . . .	mā.	42. Belly . .	nās . . .	ashtāf.
18. Of us . .	mākh . . .	mā.	43. Back . .	pūsht . . .	pēshput.
19. Our . .	tar-mākh . .	mākhān.	44. Iron . .	āin . . .	āhen, rū.
20. Thou . .	tū . . .	tū.	45. Gold . .	tāla . . .	tālā, zītāl.
21. Of these . .	tū . . .	tō.	46. Silver . .	nokra . . .	noghrā, chaṭāl
22. Thine . .	tar-tū . . .	tān.	47. Father . .	pē . . .	dāda, bāw.
23. You . .	tōs . . .	vā.	48. Mother . .	māw ^a . . .	māma, āi.
24. Of you . .	tōs . . .	vā.	49. Brother . .	marzā . . .	bāyā.
25. Your . .	tar-tōs . . .	vākhān.	50. Sister . .	khwār . . .	khī.

English.	Ormuri of Logar.	Parāchī.	English.	Ormuri of Logar.	Parāchī.
51. Man . .	sarai, māli	mānesh, mēr.	74. Ass . .	khar . .	khör.
52. Woman . .	zarka . .	zaif.	75. Camel . .	shutur . .	shutur.
53. Wife . .	nāk . .	jinch.	76. Bird . .	mirga . .	murchē.
54. Child . .	workai . .	bālū.	77. Go . .	taūm ¹ . .	param ¹ .
55. Son . .	klān . .	push.	78. Eat . .	khram . .	kharem.
56. Daughter . .	duka . .	kash ^h tē.	79. Sit . .	nustuk ^a m . .	n ^a hashtim, (<i>I sit down</i>) nhinom.
59. Shepherd	khōwān.	80. Come . .	zāyam . .	zhim.
62. Sun . .	tōa . .	rūch.	81. Beat . .	zhanam . .	dehem.
63. Moon . .	mātau . .	mahök.	82. Stand . .	darūk ^a m . .	apā hem.
64. Star . .	sitāra . .	sitāru.	83. Die . .	mrē (<i>he dies</i>) . .	merem.
65. Fire . .	rūp . .	ār, rhine.	84. Give . .	shirim . .	dahem.
66. Water . .	wök . .	āwo.	85. Run . .	dangam . .	halai kanem, dhāw ^a dahem.
67. House . .	nēr . .	ghus.	156. I am . .	um . .	ān em.
68. Horse . .	yāsp . .	ōsp.	157. Thou art . .	ōn . .	tu ē.
69. Cow . .	gōi . .	gū.	158. He is . .	a, ē . .	hō a, sī.
70. Dog . .	^a spuk . .	^a spō, ^a spagh.	159. We are . .	ēn . .	mā iman.
71. Cat . .	pishī . .	pishak.	160. You are . .	ē . .	vā ōr.
72. Cock . .	pīng . .	khurās, bāshana.	161. They are . .	in . .	edān en.
73. Duck . .	murghāwī . .	kurgh-e-āwī.			

¹ Present sing. 1, and so throughout.

APPENDIX I.

CLASSIFIED LIST OF INDIAN LANGUAGES AS SHOWN IN
THE LINGUISTIC SURVEY OF INDIA
AND IN THE
CENSUS OF 1921.

THE following pages show the statistical results of the Linguistic Survey of India, compared, so far as is possible, with the language-figures of the Census of 1921.

A few words must be added as to the classification of the languages mentioned in this list. For those which have been dealt with in the Linguistic Survey, I have followed the grouping there adopted. The only exception is Mikir (No. 189), which later information has caused me to transfer from the Nāgā-Bodo to the Nāgā-Kuki sub-group. As regards the other languages,—nearly all of which are spoken in Burma,—I have thought it best, for convenience of reference, to follow the classification of the Census of 1921. A Linguistic Survey of Burma is at the present moment in progress, and it seems to me to be advisable to defer any alteration of the Census arrangement until that Survey has put the attempt upon a secure foundation. Any immediate change could only be temporary and provisional.

Serial No.	Name of Language or Dialect.	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS.		REMARKS.
		Survey Estimates (1891).	According to Census, 1921.	
	Austrie Family	3,052,046	4,529,351	
	Austro-Nesian Sub-Family	...	5,561	
	Indo-Nesian Branch	...	5,561	None of the languages of this Branch came within the scope of the Survey.
	Malay Group	...	5,561	
1	Salón	...	1,951	
2	Malay	...	3,610	
	Austro-Asiatic Sub-Family	3,052,046	4,523,790	
	Mōn-Khmēr Branch	177,293	549,917	Except Khāsi, none of the languages of this Branch came within the scope of the Survey.
	Mōn-Khmēr Group	...	189,263	
3	Mōn or Talaing	...	189,263	
	Palaung-Wa Group	...	147,889	
4	Palaung	...	117,773	
5	Wa	...	13,648	
6	Yanglam	...	12,853	
7	Danaw	...	1,433	
7a	Others ¹	...	2,182	
	Khāsi Group	177,293	204,103	
8	Khāsi	177,293	204,103	
9	Standard	113,190	...	
10	Lyng-ngam	1,850	...	
11	Synteng	51,740	...	
12	Wār	7,000	...	
	Unspecified	3,513	...	
	Nicobar Group	...	8,662	
13	Nicobarese	...	8,662	
	Mundā Branch	2,874,753	3,973,873	
14	Kherwārī	2,537,328	3,503,215	
15	Santālī	1,614,822	2,233,573	
16	Mundārī	406,524	624,506	
17	Bhumij	79,078	137,309	
18	Birhār	1,234	258	
19	Kōḍā	8,949	19,690	
20	Hō	363,126	447,862	
21	Tūrī	3,727	11,932	
22	Asurī	15,025	3,099	The Survey figures are certainly excessive.
23	Agariā	1,616	524	
24	Brijīā	3,000	825	
25	Korwā	20,227	21,655	
	Unspecified	...	1,982	
26	Kūrkū	111,684	120,893	
27	Khariā	72,172	137,476	
28	Juāṅg	15,697	10,531	
29	Savara	102,039	168,441	The Survey figures are those of the Census of 1891.
30	Gadabā	35,833	33,066	
31	Unspecified	...	251	

¹ Include Khamuk (303), Lem (782), and Yang (1,197), for which see Index.

Serial No.	Name of Language or Dialect.	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS.		REMARKS.
		Survey Estimates (1891). ¹	According to Census, 1921.	
	Karen Family	...	1,114,026	Spoken only in Burma.
31	Karen	...	1,114,026	
32	Bwè	...	10,627	
33	Karenbyu	...	11,160	
34	Sgaw	...	368,282	
35	Pwo	...	352,466	
36	Taungtha	...	210,535	
37	Padaung	...	13,743	
38	Yinbaw	...	5,362	
39	Gheko	...	2,579	
40	Karenni	...	34,488	
41	Zayein	...	3,911	
41a	Others ¹ and Unspecified	...	100,873	
	Man Family	...	591	Spoken in Burma.
42	Yao	...	197	
43	Miao or Hmōng	...	394	
	Tibeto-Chinese Family	1,984,512	12,885,346	
	Siamese-Chinese Sub-Family	4,205	926,335	
	Tai Group	4,205	926,335	Mostly spoken in Burma.
44	Lao	...	3,851	
45	Siamese	...	8,744	
46	Lü	...	26,108	
47	Khün	...	33,210	
48	Daye	...	746	
49	Shān	200	843,810	
50	Aiton	200	...	Spoken in Assam.
51	Āhom	Now extinct. Formerly spoken in Assam. It is described in the Survey.
52	Khāmṭi	4,005	9,866	Spoken in Assam.
53	Khāmṭi Proper	2,930	...	
54	Phākial	625	...	
55	Tai-rong	150	...	
56	Norā	300	...	
	Tibeto-Burman Sub-Family	1,980,307	11,959,011	Most of the speakers of these languages belong to Burma, which was not subject to the operations of the Survey.
	Tibeto-Himalayan Branch	399,742	440,263	
	Tibetan Group	205,508	231,885	
57	Bhōṭiā	205,508	231,885	
58	Bhōṭiā of Tibet or Tibetan	7,968	8,995	
59	Bhōṭiā of Baltistan or Balti	130,678	148,366	The Survey figures for these three dialects are those of the Census of 1901. No figures were available in 1891.
60	Bhōṭiā of Purik			
61	Bhōṭiā of Ladakh or Ladakhī			
62	Bhōṭiā of Lahul or Lāhulī			
63	Bhōṭiā of Spiti	3,548	...	
64	Bhōṭiā of Upper Kanawar or Nyamkat	1,544	...	

¹ Include Monnpesa (72), Brok (616), Paks (1,206), and Wocaw (256), for which see Index.

Serial No.	Name of Language or Dialect.	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS.		REMARKS.
		Survey Estimates (1891).	According to Census, 1921.	
65	<i>Bhōṭiā of Tehri Garhwal or Jaṭ</i>	106	...	From here the differences between the Survey figures and those of the Census of 1911 are due partly to the fact that the latter covered a larger area than did that of 1891, and partly to classification less stringent than that adopted in the Survey. In 1911, 11,429 speakers were not classified at all.
66	<i>Bhōṭiā of Garhwal</i>	4,300	...	
67	<i>Sharpa Bhōṭiā</i>	900	5,180	
68	<i>Bhōṭiā of Sikkim or Dā-njong-kā</i>	20,000	10,046	
69	<i>Bhōṭiā of Bhutan or Lhoke</i>	5,079	10,526	
70	<i>Kāgate</i>	Spoken in East Nepal and Darjiling, but no figures are available. Akin to Sharpa.
71	<i>Bhōṭiā of Khams</i>	
	<i>Other Dialects (Unspecified)</i>	...	15,470	Spoken in East Tibet between U and China. No figures available.
	Pronominalized Himalayan Group	93,978	107,841	
	Western Sub-Group	27,093	22,733	Many speakers of this Sub-Group have been classed under some other head, perhaps Bhōṭiā (57), in the Census.
72	<i>Manchātī or Paṭnī</i>	2,995	...	
73	<i>Chamba Lāhulī</i>	1,387	...	
74	<i>Bunān</i>	2,987	...	
75	<i>Ranglōi, Gōndlā, or Tinan</i>			
76	<i>Kanāshi</i>	980	539	
77	<i>Kanauri</i>	13,099	22,098	
78	<i>Rangkas</i>	614	...	
79	<i>Darmiā</i>	1,761	7	
80	<i>Chaudāngsī</i>	1,485	...	
81	<i>Byāngsī</i>	1,585	...	
82	<i>Janggali</i>	200	89	
	Eastern Sub-Group	66,885	85,108	Nearly all the speakers of these languages have their homes in Nepal. The figures given represent only the speakers found in British Territory. The languages are, however, all described in the pages of the Survey.
83	<i>Dhimāl</i>	...	505	
84	<i>Thāmī</i>	100	423	
85	<i>Limbū</i>	24,045	23,402	
86	<i>Yākhā</i>	1,250	1,087	
87	<i>Khambū</i>	41,490	3,066	
88	<i>Rāi or Jimdār</i>			
89	<i>(Khambū Dialects)</i>	These are all spoken in Nepal, and no figures for them are available. They are, however, all described in the pages of the Survey.
90	<i>Bāhing</i>	
91	<i>Bālālī</i>	
92	<i>Sāngpāng</i>	
93	<i>Lōhōrōng</i>	
94	<i>Lāmbickhōng</i>	
95	<i>Wāling</i>	
96	<i>Chhingtāng</i>	
97	<i>Rūngchkhēntūng</i>	
98	<i>Dūngmālī</i>	
99	<i>Rōdōng or Chamling</i>	
100	<i>Nāckherēng</i>	
101	<i>Kūlung</i>	
102	<i>Thūlung</i>	
103	<i>Chaurāsya</i>	
104	<i>Khāling</i>	
105	<i>Dūmī</i>	
106	<i>Vāyu or Hāyu</i>	The same remarks apply to this and the four following.
107	<i>Chēpāng</i>	

Serial No.	Name of Language or Dialect.	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS.		REMARKS.
		Survey Estimates (1891).	According to Census, 1921.	
108	Kusūnda	
109	Bhrāmu	
110	Thāksya	The classification of this language is doubtful. See Vol. III, Pt. I, p. 406. Given the general term of Kirānti.
	Unspecified	283	
	Non-Pronominalized Himalayan Group.	100,256	100,537	
111	Gurung	5,211	No estimates for this language were returned for the Survey. The Census figures for 1891 were 7,481. As in the preceding group nearly all the speakers of the languages of this group have their homes in Nepal, and the figures given represent only those found in British Territory.
112	Murmi	36,848	38,512	
113	Sunwār	5,356	4,132	
114	Māgarī	16,979	20,536	
115	Nēwārī	5,979	10,134	
116	Nēwārī Proper	5,979	...	
117	Paḍhī, Pakrī, or Pakī	
118	Róng or Lepcha	34,894	20,569	
119	Kāmī	649	The classification of Kāmī and Mānjhi is doubtful. See Survey, Vol. III, Pt. I, p. 178.
120	Mānjhi	523	
121	Tōtō	200	271	Except in the case of Miri, nearly all the speakers of these languages live outside settled British Territory. Hence the small numbers recorded.
	North Assam Branch	36,910	80,482	
122	Aka or Hrusso	20	71	
123	Abor	170	13,317	
124	Miri	35,510	65,289	
125	Daflā	990	959	
126	Mishmi	220	846	Most of the speakers of the languages of this Branch live in Burma, a province which was not subject to the operations of the Survey.
	Assam-Burmese Branch	1,543,655	11,438,266	
	Bārā or Bodo Group	618,659	715,696	
127	Bārā, Bodo, or Plains Kāchārī	272,231	271,612	
128	Bodo Proper	178,320	...	
129	Mech	93,911	...	
130	Lālūng	40,160	10,383	
131	Dīmā-sā or Hills Kāchārī	18,681	11,040	
132	Standard	15,931	...	
133	Hōjai	2,750	...	
134	Gārō	139,763	216,117	
135	Āchik or Standard	55,400	...	
136	Ābeng	38,000	...	
137	Ātong, Āting, or Kuchu	15,000	...	
138	Āwi	20,000	...	
139	Chibok	1,500	...	
140	Dālu	500	...	
141	Rugā	500	...	
	Unspecified	8,863	...	
142	Kōch	10,300	16,165	
143	Harigayā	1,100	...	
144	Satpariyā	1,100	...	
145	Dasgayā or Banai	1,100	...	
146	Wanāng	1,100	...	
147	Tintekiyā	1,400	...	

Serial No.	Name of Language or Dialect.	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS.		REMARKS.
		Survey Estimates (1891).	According to Census, 1921.	
	<i>Unspecified</i>	4,500	...	
148	Rābhā	31,370	22,545	
149	Rāngdāniā	30,370	...	
150	Maitariā or Matrai	1,000	...	
151	Tipurā or Mrung	105,850	163,720	
152	Chutiya	304	4,113	The Survey estimate is probably too small.
153	Morān	...	1	This language has apparently died out, but it is dealt with in the Survey.
	<i>Nāgā Group</i>	292,799	338,634	
	<i>Western Nāgā Sub-Group</i>	68,930	88,264	
154	Angāmi	35,410	43,050	
155	Tengimā	26,900	...	
156	Dzunā	1,430	...	
157	Kehenā	6,490	...	
158	Nālī or Mimā	59	...	
159	Semā	26,400	34,883	
160	Simi	These two dialects are referred to in the Survey, but no separate figures for them were obtainable.
161	Zhimomi	
162	Rengmā or Unzā	5,500	5,103	
163	Unzā	2,750	...	
164	Māyi	2,750	...	
165	Kezhāmā	1,620	5,228	
	<i>Central Nāgā Sub-Group</i>	38,000	48,554	
166	Āo or Hatigoria	15,500	30,142	In the Survey column, the number of speakers given for the Sub-Group does not agree with the total of the number of speakers given for each separate language. For languages spoken outside settled British territory it was impossible even approximately to estimate the number of speakers. This fact has been allowed for in giving the figures for the Sub-Group, which should be considered as a very low estimate of the total number of speakers—probably too low.
167	Chungli or Zungi	9,300	...	
168	Mongsen	6,200	...	
169	Lhōtā or Tsōntsi	22,000	18,412	
170	Tengsa Nāgā	?	...	These three languages are spoken beyond the frontier. See the preceding note. They are all briefly described in the Survey.
171	Thukumi	?	...	
172	Yachumi	?	...	
	<i>Eastern Nāgā Sub-Group</i>	10,000	...	
173	Angwānku or Tableng	5,000	...	In the Survey column, the number of speakers given for the Sub-Group does not agree with the total of the number of speakers given for each separate language. For languages spoken outside settled British territory it was impossible even approximately to estimate the number of speakers. This fact has been allowed for in giving the figures for the Sub-Group.
174	Tamlu or Chingmēgnu		...	
175	Banparā	1,600	...	
176	Mutoniā		...	
177	Mohongiā, Borduariā or Pāniduariā	1,870	...	These four languages are all really trans-frontier forms of speech. See the preceding note. One estimate gives the number of speakers of Chāng as about 6,500, but its value is doubtful. All four are dealt with in the Survey.
178	Namsangiā		...	
179	Chāng or Mojung	?	...	
180	Assiringiā	?	...	
181	Mōshāng	?	...	The Survey includes Mikir in this Sub-Group, but later information leads me to class it in the Nāgā-Kuki Sub-Group.
182	Shānggē	?	...	
	<i>Nāgā-Bodo Sub-Group</i>	36,353	27,109	
183	Ēmpō or Kachchā Nāgā	10,280	9,959	
184	Inzēmi	The numbers of the speakers of these three dialects are unknown.
185	Sengimā	
186	Yēmā or Jēmā	

Serial No.	Name of Language or Dialect.	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS.		REMARKS.
		Survey Estimates (1891).	According to Census, 1921.	
187	Kabui or Kapwī	11,073	15,647	Kabui and Khoirāo were not censused in 1891, so that the Survey estimates are very rough.
188	Khoirāo	15,000	1,503	
	<i>Nāgā-Kuki Sub-Group</i>	139,516	152,266	
189	Mikir	89,516	109,123	Regarding the inclusion of Mikir in this Sub-Group, see above.
190	<i>Standard</i>	77,986	...	
191	<i>Bhoi Mikir</i>	10,080	...	
192	<i>Amri</i>	725	...	
193	<i>Rengkhang</i>	725	...	
194	Sopvomā or Māo Nāgā	10,000	13,096	None of the remaining languages of this Sub-Group were censused in 1891, so that the Survey estimates are very rough. Sopvomā (184) is closely allied to Kerhāmā (185), and may with equal propriety be put into the Western Nāgā Sub-Group.
195	Marām	2,500	3,522	
196	Miyāngkhāng	5,000	...	
197	Kwoireng or Liyāng	5,000	...	
198	Tāngkhul	26,000	24,170	
199	<i>Tāngkhul Proper</i>	25,000	24,170	
200	<i>Phadāng</i>	500	...	The Survey estimates for these two dialects are very doubtful.
201	<i>Khangoi</i>	500	...	
202	Marīng	1,500	2,355	
	<i>Nāgā Unclassed</i>	22,441	
	<i>Kachin Group</i>	1,920	151,193	The great majority of the speakers of the languages of this Group belong to Burma which was not subject to the operations of the Survey. The speakers of the Singpho dialect, however, belong to Assam.
203	Kachin	1,920	151,196	
204	<i>Chingpaw</i>	150,896	
205	<i>Singpho</i>	1,920	...	
205a	<i>Others</i> ¹	300	
	<i>Kuki-Chin Group</i>	567,625	796,314	Many of the languages of this Group are spoken only in Burma, which Province was not subject to the operations of the Survey. Moreover, in the case of languages dealt with in the Survey, the many discrepancies between the figures of the Survey and those of the 1921 Census are explained by the fact that in the Census a very large number of speakers was entered as 'Unclassed,' see 'Unclassed Kuki-Chin' below.
	<i>Meithei Sub-Group</i>	240,637	342,645	
206	Manipuri, Meithei, Kathē, or Pōṇā	240,637	342,645	
	<i>Northern Chin Sub-Group</i>	60,345	83,033	
207	Thādo	31,437	33,258	
208	<i>Khongzāi</i>	20,000	...	In Manipur.
209	<i>Langtung</i>	5,500	...	In the Naga Hills.
210	<i>Jangshēn</i>	In North Cachar, but the number of speakers is unknown.
211	<i>Sairang</i>	5,403	...	In Cachar Plains.
	<i>Unspecified</i>	534	...	In Sylhet.
212	Soktē	9,005	30,633	Census figures include 8,664 speakers of the Kamhow dialect.
213	Siyin	1,770	3,143	
214	Raltē	18,183	5,539	
215	Paitē	?	10,460	Described in Survey, but the number of speakers was then unknown.
	<i>Central Chin Sub-Group</i>	107,604	141,668	
216	Shunkla or Tashōn	41,215	20,754	Census figures include 3,150, shown as Hualngc.
217	<i>Shunkla Proper</i>	39,215	10,709	
218	<i>Zahao or Yakow</i>	2,000	10,045	
219	Lai	24,550	43,731	The difference between the Survey and the Census figures is probably due to difference of classification. See Chin Unclassified below.
220	<i>Haka</i>	14,250	2,458	
221	<i>Plantlang</i>	4,925	...	Called Kwelshin in the All-Indian Census.

¹ The Census gives Nongmung (168), Nokkyo (133), Ntūt, Pangsu, Kang, Lengkhai, Taya, and Tawhawng. Only the first two were in the Census area.

Serial No.	Name of Language or Dialect.	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS.		REMARKS.
		Survey Estimates (1891).	According to Census, 1921.	
222	<i>Yokwa</i>	2,675	212	
223	<i>Lakher, Mara, or Tlongsai</i>	1,100	6	The name 'Mara' is not given in the Survey.
223a	<i>Others¹ and Unspecified</i>	1,600	41,055	
224	<i>Lushēi or Dulien</i>	40,539	77,180	The Survey figures include those for dialects. The figures for the separate dialects are unknown.
225	<i>Fannai</i>	
226	<i>Ngentē</i>	
227	<i>Banjōgi</i>	800	3	
228	<i>Pānkhū</i>	500	...	
	<i>Old-Kuki Sub-Group</i>	48,814	26,245	
229	<i>Hrāngkhōl, Rāngkhōl, or Hrāngchal</i>	8,450	671	The correct name is Hrāngkhōl, not Rāngkhōl, as in the Survey.
230	<i>Hrāngkhōl Proper</i>	7,820	...	
231	<i>Bētā</i>	630	...	
232	<i>Hallām</i>	26,848	3,131	
233	<i>Hallām Proper</i>	26,533	...	
234	<i>Khelma</i>	
235	<i>Sakājaiḥ or Shekasip</i>	315	...	
236	<i>Langrong</i>	6,266	...	
237	<i>Aimol</i>	750	387	The Survey estimates for the remaining language of this Sub-Group were admittedly very rough and their correctness is doubtful.
238	<i>Chiru</i>	750	1,577	
239	<i>Kolhreng or Kolrēn</i>	750	600	The name 'Koireng,' also given in the Survey and adopted in the Census of 1911, is incorrect. The true name is Kolhreng.
240	<i>Kōm</i>	750	2,855	
241	<i>Kyau or Chaw</i>	?	351	
242	<i>Hmār</i>	2,000	8,586	The spelling "Hmār" is more correct than 'Mhār.'
243	<i>Chote</i>	?	264	
244	<i>Muntuk</i>	?	...	
245	<i>Karum</i>	?	...	
246	<i>Pūrūm</i>	750	1,132	
247	<i>Anāl</i>	750	3,065	
248	<i>Hirōi-Lamgāng</i>	750	744	
249	<i>Vaiphei</i>	...	2,882	Not described in the Survey.
	<i>Southern Chin Sub-Group</i>	110,225	35,206	
250	<i>Chinmè</i>	?	...	Most of the languages of this Sub-Group belong to Burma, a Province which was not subject to the operations of the Survey. Many, however, are discussed in the Survey, although the number of their speakers was unknown. For the others, the classification of the Census has been followed.
251	<i>Welaung</i>	?	...	
252	<i>Chinbōk</i>	?	...	
253	<i>Yiudu</i>	?	105	
254	<i>Chinbōn</i>	?	683	
255	<i>Taungtha</i>	?	6,253	
256	<i>Khyang or Shō</i>	95,599	107	The Survey figures are taken from the Burma Census of 1891. Excepting Khami (257), they include all speakers of the Sub-Group, who were then all connoted in Burma by the general name of Chin or (Arakanese) Khyang. About 100 Khyangs are recorded in the Survey as found in the Chittagong Hill Tracts.
257	<i>Khami, Khwē-myi, or Kumi</i>	14,626	27,346	
258	<i>Anu</i>	...	712	
259	<i>M'hang</i>	?	...	
	<i>Unclassed Kuki-Chin</i>	...	167,517	
259a	<i>Kuki (Unspecified)</i>	...	25,052	
259b	<i>Chin Unclassed² and (Unspecified)</i>	...	142,465	
	<i>Burma Group</i>	62,652	9,335,595	Nearly all the languages of this Group belong to Burma, a Province which was not subject to the operations of the Survey. The Census treats Mīr as an unclassified language. In other respects the classification of the Census is followed.
260	<i>Maingtha</i>	...	339	
261	<i>Szi or Atsi</i>	...	5,663	

¹ Includes, in Census, Yo or Zo (5,449), Laiyo (9,277), Kwangli (3,604), and Kaungtea (57).

² The Census gives the following unclassified Chin languages:—Ngorn (3,532), Saingbaung (7,232), Lawt'u (3,043), Yotun (5,109), Shentang (5,720), Chaunggyi Chin (686), Kaukadan (9), Ledc (2,011), Matu (51), Sittu (3,918), and Taman (92).

Serial No.	Name of Language or Dialect.	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS.		REMARKS.
		Survey Estimates (1891).	According to Census, 1921.	
262	Lashi	16,570	
263	Maru	20,577	
264	Mrū	17,991	22,907	
265	Burmese	8,423,256	
266	Arakanese	44,661	304,549	
267	Taungyo	22,532	
268	Intha	55,007	
269	Danu	72,955	
270	Tavoyan	131,748	
271	Chaungtha	9,052	
272	Yanbye	250,018	
272 ^a	Others ¹	422	
	Lolo-Mos'o Group	75,686	No languages of this Group are dealt with in the Survey. The classification is that of the Census of 1921, for which I am not responsible. I have adhered to it merely for convenience of reference.
273	Lolo	769	
274	Mo-s'o	22,742	
275	Lisu	13,152	
276	Aka	34,265	Spelt 'Akha' in Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Pt. I, Vol. I, p. 692.
277	Kwi	3,676	
277 ^a	Others ²	1,082	
	Sak (Lūi) Group	25,145	
278	Lūi	This language is mentioned by two writers as spoken in Manipur, but no information has been obtainable regarding it. See Survey, Vol. III, Part iii, p. 43.
279	<i>Andro-Sengmai</i>	
280	<i>Chairel</i>	
281	Kadu	18,594	
282	Daingnet	4,915	
283	Ganan	1,022	
284	Sak or Thet	614	
	Dravidian Family	53,073,261	64,128,052	Most of the languages of this Family,—at least, the most important ones,—belong to Southern India, a tract which was not subject to the operations of the Survey. The Survey, however, for the sake of completeness, gives the figures for each language for the whole of India, utilizing the returns of the Census of 1891, corrected in details of dialects by local reports.
	Dravida Group	30,940,550	37,285,594	
285	Tamil	15,272,856	18,779,577	
286	<i>Standard and Unspecified</i>	15,207,256	...	
287	<i>Korava</i>	55,116	...	
288	<i>Yerukala</i>	
289	<i>Irula</i>	1,614	...	
290	<i>Kasuva</i>	345	...	
291	<i>Kaikāḍi</i>	8,289	...	
292	<i>Burgāḍi</i>	265	...	
293	Malayālam	5,425,979	7,497,638	
294	<i>Standard and Unspecified</i>	5,423,392	...	
295	<i>Yerava</i>	2,587	...	
296	Kanarese	9,710,832	10,374,204	
297	<i>Standard</i>	9,666,163	...	
298	<i>Baḍaga</i>	30,656	...	
299	<i>Kurumba or Kurumvārī</i>	10,399	...	
300	<i>Gōlarī or Hōliyā</i>	3,614	...	
301	Koḍagu or Coorgi	37,218	39,995	
302	Tuḷu	491,723	592,325	

¹ Includes Phun (243), Yaw (2), and Merguese (177), for which see Index.² Includes Wat'ao-Khum (40), Nung (64), Akō (61), Pyin (927), Tangsir (...), and Hop'a (...), for which see Index.

Serial No.	Name of Language or Dialect.	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS.		REMARKS.
		Survey Estimates (1891).	According to Census, 1921.	
	<i>Afghanistan-Baluchistan Sub-Group</i>	4,610,311	1,981,675	
337	Pashtō	3,905,725	1,496,267	The Survey figures include an estimated number of 3,359,000 persons who speak the language outside British Territory. The numerous Sub-Dialects are described in the Survey, but no figures are available for them.
338	<i>North-Eastern Dialect</i>	806,974	...	
339	Standard of Peshawar	?	...	
340	Buner Sub-Dialect	?	...	
341	Yūsufzai Sub-Dialect	?	...	
342	Swat Sub-Dialect	?	...	
343	Bajaur Sub-Dialect	?	...	
344	Ghilzai Sub-Dialect	?	...	
345	Afridi Sub-Dialect	?	...	
346	Chhachhi Pashtō	?	...	
347	Bangash Sub-Dialect	?	...	
348	<i>South-Western Dialect</i>	676,402	...	
349	Standard of Bannu	?	...	
350	Khatāk Sub-Dialect	?	...	
351	Bannūchī	?	...	
352	Marwat Sub-Dialect	?	...	
353	Waziri	?	...	
354	Standard of Kandahar	?	...	
355	Kakari	?	...	
356	Lūni	?	...	
357	Shirāni	?	...	
358	Mandōkheil Sub-Dialect	?	...	
359	Tarinō or Chalgari	?	...	
	<i>Unspecified Dialect</i>	63,349	...	This language is spoken outside settled British Territory.
	<i>Estimated number of speakers outside British Territory.</i>	2,359,000	...	
360	Ormuri or Bargistā	?	...	
361	Balochi	704,586	485,408	
362	<i>Western Dialect</i>	324,899	...	
363	Makrani (Kechi)	?	...	
364	Makrani (Panjguri)	?	...	
365	<i>Eastern Dialect</i>	376,822	...	
366	Standard (of Dera Ghazi Khan and Jacobabad).	125,510	...	
367	Standard (of North Baluchistan)	105,522	...	
368	Kasrani	?	...	The Survey figures include a number of 200,000 estimated speakers of the Western Dialect outside British Territory.
369	Mixed Dialects (of Las Bela, Sind, and Bahawalpur).	145,790	...	
	<i>Unspecified Dialect</i>	2,865	...	
	<i>Ghalchah Sub-Group</i>	?	...	
370	Wakhi	?	...	
371	Shighni	?	...	
372	Sarikoli	?	...	
373	Ishkashmi	?	...	
374	<i>Ishkashmi Proper</i>	?	...	
375	Sanglichē	?	...	
376	Zebaki	?	...	All the languages of this Sub-Group are spoken outside British Territory, except the Yūdghā dialect, which is spoken in Chitral. No figures are available for any of them. All are described in the Survey.
377	Munjani or Mungi	?	...	
378	Yūdghā	?	...	

Serial No.	Name of Language or Dialect.	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS.		REMARKS.
		Survey Estimates (1891).	According to Census, 1921.	
	Dardic or Pisācha Branch	1,195,902	1,304,319	Except for Kashmiri, the 1921 Census returns for all the languages of this Branch are incomplete. No figures were originally available for the Survey. The Survey figures for Kashmiri are based on those of the 1911 Census. Nearly all the languages are described in the Survey.
	Kāfir Group	?	...	
379	Bashgali	?	...	
380	Wai-alā	?	...	
381	Wasī-veri or Veron	?	...	
382	Ashkund	?	...	
	<i>Kalāshā-Pashai Sub-Group</i>	?	...	
383	Kalāshā	?	...	
384	Gawar-bati or Narsāti	?	...	
385	Pashai, Laghmāni, or Dēhgāni	?	...	
386	<i>Eastern Dialect</i>	?	?	
387	<i>Western Dialect</i>	?	?	
388	Diri	?	...	
389	Tirāhi	?	...	
	Khōwār Group	?	121	The Survey figures differ from those of the Census, owing to difference of classification of some of the Mixed Dialects.
390	Khōwār, Chitrāli, or Arniyā	?	121	
	Dard Group	1,195,902	1,304,198	
391	Shinā	?	28,482	
392	<i>Gilgitī</i>	?	?	
393	<i>Astōri</i>	?	?	
394	<i>Chilāsī</i>	?	?	
395	<i>Gurēzi</i>	?	?	
396	<i>Drās Dialect</i>	?	?	
397	<i>Brōkpā of Dāk-Hanū</i>	?	?	
398	<i>North-Western Dialect</i>	?	?	
399	Kāshmirī	1,195,902	1,268,854	
400	<i>Standard</i>	1,039,964	?	
401	<i>Kashṭawāri</i>	7,464	?	
402	<i>Mixed Dialects</i>	45,316	?	
403	Pōguli	8,158	?	For the difference between the Survey and Census figures, see Lahndā, below. The Census figures are too low, many speakers of the language having been shown as speakers of Pañjābi.
404	Sirājī of Dōdā	14,732	?	
405	Rāmbanī	2,174	?	
406	Riāsī Dialects	20,253	?	
	<i>Unspecified</i>	103,158	?	
407	Kōhistāni	?	6,862	
408	<i>Gārwi or Bashgharik</i>	?	?	
409	<i>Tōrwālī or Tōrwālāk</i>	?	?	
410	Chilis	?	?	
411	<i>Maigā</i>	?	?	
412	Kili-Dūbēri Jib	?	?	
413	Kōli-Palus	?	?	
414	Seo-Bankar	?	?	
	Indo-Aryan Branch	226,060,611	229,560,555	
	<i>Sanskrit</i>	...	356	
	Outer Sub-Branch	117,778,342	123,328,825	
	North-Western Group	10,162,251	9,023,972	
415	Lahndā or Western Pañjābi	7,092,781	5,652,264	
416	<i>Standard</i>	1,507,827	...	

Serial No.	Name of Language or Dialect.	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS.		REMARKS.
		Survey Estimates (1891).	According to Census, 1921.	
417	Standard of Shahpur	447,000	...	
418	Jaṭkī	459,219	...	
419	Pañjabī	48,038	...	
420	Jānglī	30,687	...	
421	Chināwārī	73,479	...	
422	Niswānī	9,432	...	
423	Kāchhī	17,972	...	
424	Bārdī Bōlī	275,000	...	
425	Jaṭṭārdī Bōlī	147,000	...	
426	Mūltānī	2,176,983	2,342,954	
427	Mūltānī Proper	1,709,838	...	
428	Hindkī, or Jaṭkī, of Dera Ghazi Khan	362,270	...	
429	Sirāikī Hindkī of Sind	104,875	...	
430, 431	Khētrānī and Jāfirī	14,581	...	
432	Thālī or Jaṭkī	759,210	...	
433	North-Western Dialect, or Hindkō	881,425	...	
434	Standard	827,000	...	
435	Tināuli	54,425	...	
436	North-Eastern Dialects	1,752,755	423,802	
437	a. Pōṭhwārī	684,362	423,802	
438, 439	Pahārī (including Dhūṇḍī)	87,777	...	
440	Chibhālī	521,338	...	
441	Punchhī	220,069	...	
442	b. Dialect of Western Salt Range	25,000	...	
443	Awāṅkāri	123,901	...	
444	Ghēbī	90,308	...	
	Unspecified Dialects	2,885,508	
445	Sindhī	3,069,470	3,371,708	
446	Vichōlī	1,375,686	...	
447	Sirāikī Sindhī	1,112,926	...	
448	Tharēlī	
449	Lāsī	42,613	...	
450	Lārī	40,000	...	
451	Kachchhī	491,214	...	
452	Kachchhī Proper	484,714	...	
453	Kāyasthī	500	...	
454	Bhāṭīa	6,000	...	
	Unspecified	7,031	...	
	Southern Group	18,011,948	18,797,831	
455	Marāṭhī	18,011,948	18,797,831	
456	Standard or Dēśī	6,193,083	...	
457	Konkan Standard	2,350,817	...	
458	Parabhi	160,000	...	
459	Kōlī	189,186	...	
460	Kiristāv	25,500	...	
461	Kuṇbī	368,000	...	
462	Agri	22,826	...	
463	Dhanagari	1,750	...	
464	Bhāṇḍārī	8,663	...	
465	Thākari	25,405	...	
466	Karhāḍī	2,000	...	

This is a mixture of Sindhi and Marwāṭī, and the 204,749 speakers are recorded under Rājasthānī (Marwāṭī) (No. 713).

Serial No.	Name of Language or Dialect.	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS.		REMARKS.
		Survey Estimates (1891).	According to Census, 1921.	
467	Saṅgamēśvari	1,332,300	...	
468	Bānkōṭī	1,787	...	
469	Ghāṭī	2,000	...	
470	Māoli	35,000	...	
471	Katkari or Kāthōḍī	76,700	...	
472	Vārli	92,000	...	
473	Vaḍ'val	3,500	...	
474	Phuḍ'gi	1,000	...	
475	Sāmvēdi	2,700	...	
476	<i>Dialect of Berar, the Central Provinces, and the Nizam's Dominions.</i>	7,677,432	...	
477	Varhāḍi or Bērāri	2,084,023	...	
478	Nāgpuri	1,823,475	...	
479	Dhan'gari	1,800	...	
480	Dzūrpī	5,000	...	
481	Gōvāri	2,650	...	
482	Kōshṭī	2,900	...	
483	Kumbhāri	4,500	...	
484	Kun'abāu	110,150	...	
485	Mahāri	19,000	...	
486	Marbṭī	?	...	
487	Natakāni	180	...	
488	Katiā	18,700	...	
489	Broken dialects	111,196	...	
490	Hal'bi 104,971			
491	Bhunjiā 2,000			
492	Nāhari 482			
493	Kamāri 3,743			
	Unspecified of Hyderabad	3,493,358	...	
494	Kōṅkaṇi	1,565,391	406,808	The difference between the Census figures and those of the Survey is due to differences in the classification of the many sub-dialects of Konkani Standard. The Survey also includes 500,000 speakers in Portuguese India not included in the Census returns.
495	Standard	683,650	...	
496	Kuḍālī	90,000	...	
497	Dāldi	23,500	...	
498	Chitpāvani	69,000	...	
	Unspecified	699,241	...	
	<i>Marāṭhī Unspecified</i>	225,225	18,387,586	Includes 500,000 speakers in Portuguese India.
499	Singhalese	3,437	This language did not fall within the scope of the Survey.
500	<i>Standard</i>	
501	<i>Mahl</i>	
	Eastern Group	89,604,143	61,171,923	
502	Oṛiyā	9,042,525	10,143,165	
503	<i>Standard</i>	8,352,228	...	
504	<i>Mixed Dialects of the North</i>	582,798	...	
505	<i>Bhatrī</i>	17,387	...	
	<i>Unspecified</i>	90,112	...	
506	Bihāri	37,180,782	7,331	In the Census of 1921 nearly all speakers of Bihāri and Eastern Hindi were returned as speaking 'Hindi.' If we adopt the system of calculation followed on p. 335 of the Census Report of 1911, and take 35 per cent. of the total of the Census figures for Bihāri, Eastern Hindi, and Western Hindi, we find that the number of speakers of Bihāri was approximately 34,342,430.
507	<i>Maithilī</i>	10,263,357	...	
508	Standard	1,946,800	...	
509	Southern Standard	2,300,000	...	
510	Eastern	1,302,300	...	
511	Eastern Proper 1,300,000			
512	Tharū 2,300			

Serial No.	Name of Language or Dialect.	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS.		REMARKS.
		Survey Estimates (1891).	According to Census, 1921.	
513	Chhikā-ohhiki	1,719,781	...	
514	Western	1,783,495	...	
515	Jolahā Boli	337,000	...	
	Unspecified	873,981	...	
516	<i>Magahi</i>	6,504,817	...	
517	Standard	5,926,103	...	
518	Eastern	313,864	...	
	Unspecified	264,850	...	
519	<i>Bhojpuri</i>	20,412,608	...	
520	Southern Standard	4,324,293	...	
521	Northern Standard	6,165,151	...	
522	Saran Dialect	1,504,500		
523	Gorakhpuri	1,307,500		
524	Sarwariā	3,353,151		
525	Western	3,939,500	...	
526	Nagpurīā	594,257	...	
527	Madhēsi	1,714,036	...	
528	Tharū Bhojpuri	39,700	...	
	Unspecified	3,635,671	...	
529	Bengali	41,933,284	49,294,099	
530	<i>Central or Standard</i>	8,443,996	...	
531	<i>Western</i>	3,967,641	...	
532	Standard	3,888,846	...	
533	Sarūki	48,127	...	
534	Khapiā-thār	2,298	...	
535	Pahāriā-thār	462	...	
536	Māl Pahāriā	27,908	...	
537	<i>South-Western</i>	346,502	...	
538	<i>Northern</i>	6,108,553	...	
539	Standard	5,439,930	...	
540	Kōch	65,000	...	
541	Siripurīā	603,623	...	
542	<i>Rājbangsi</i>	3,509,171	...	
543	Standard	3,461,736	...	
544	Bāhē	47,435	...	
545	<i>Eastern</i>	16,910,651	...	
546	Standard	15,999,430	...	
547	Haijong	5,000	...	
548	Sylhettiā	906,221	...	
549	<i>South-Eastern</i>	2,310,784	...	
550	Standard	2,290,784	...	
551	Chakmā	20,000	...	
	<i>Unspecified</i>	335,986	...	
552	Assamese	1,447,552	1,727,323	
553	<i>Standard</i>	859,950	...	
554	<i>Western</i>	543,500	...	
555	<i>Mayāng</i>	23,500	...	
556	<i>Jharwā</i>	9,000	...	
	<i>Unspecified</i>	11,602	...	
	Mediate Sub-Branch	24,511,647	1,399,528	
	Mediate Group	24,511,647	1,399,528	

On p. 69 of Vol. V, Pt. I of the Survey the figures (12,801) given for this language are a mistake.

Serial No.	Name of Language or Dialect.	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS.		REMARKS.
		Survey Estimates (1891).	According to Census, 1921.	
557	Eastern Hindī	24,511,647	1,399,528	In the Census of 1921 nearly all speakers of Bihārī and Eastern Hindī were returned as speaking 'Hindī.' If we adopt the system of calculation followed on p. 335 of the Census Report of 1911 and take 23 per cent. of the total of the Census figures for Bihārī, Eastern Hindī, and Western Hindī, we find that the number of speakers of Eastern Hindī was approximately 22,567,892.
558	<i>Awadhī, Kōsalī, or Bāṣwārī</i>	16,143,548	...	
559	<i>Baghelī, Baghelkhandī, or Rīwāṇī</i>	4,612,756	...	
560	Standard	3,692,126	...	
561	Broken Dialects of the West	824,800	...	
562	Tirhārī	225,700	...	
563	'Bundēli'	236,200	...	
564	Gahōrā	243,400	...	
565	Jūṛar	114,500	...	
566	Banāpharī	5,000	...	
567	Broken Dialects of the South	95,830	...	In the Census of 1921 nearly all speakers of Bihārī and Eastern Hindī were returned as speaking 'Hindī.' If we adopt the system of calculation followed on p. 335 of the Census Report of 1911 and take 42 per cent. of the total of the Census figures for Bihārī, Eastern Hindī, and Western Hindī, we find that the number of speakers of Western Hindī was approximately 41,210,916.
568	Marārī	52,700	...	
569	Pōwārī	43,000	...	
570	Kumbhārī	30	...	
571	Ōjhi	100	...	
572	<i>Chhattīsgarhī, Lariā, or Khatkākī</i>	3,755,343	...	
573	Chhattīsgarhī Proper	3,335,875	...	
574	Surgujā	384,546	...	
575	Broken Dialects	34,922	...	
576	Sadrī Korwā	4,000	...	
577	Baigānī	7,100	...	In the Census of 1921 nearly all speakers of Bihārī and Eastern Hindī were returned as speaking 'Hindī.' If we adopt the system of calculation followed on p. 335 of the Census Report of 1911 and take 42 per cent. of the total of the Census figures for Bihārī, Eastern Hindī, and Western Hindī, we find that the number of speakers of Western Hindī was approximately 41,210,916.
578	Binjhawārī	9,662	...	
579	Kalaṅgā	600	...	
580	Bhulā	13,560	...	
	Inner Sub-Branch	83,770,622	139,166,945	
	Central Group	81,665,821	137,249,408	
581	Western Hindī	38,013,928	96,714,369	
582	<i>Hindōstānī</i>	16,633,169	...	
583	Vernacular Hindōstānī	5,282,733	...	
584	Literary Hindōstānī	7,696,264	...	
585	Urdū	
586	Hindī	
587	Dakhinī Hindōstānī or Musalmānī	3,654,172	...	In the Census of 1921 nearly all speakers of Bihārī and Eastern Hindī were returned as speaking 'Hindī.' If we adopt the system of calculation followed on p. 335 of the Census Report of 1911 and take 42 per cent. of the total of the Census figures for Bihārī, Eastern Hindī, and Western Hindī, we find that the number of speakers of Western Hindī was approximately 41,210,916.
588	<i>Bāngarū, etc.</i>	2,165,784	...	
589	Bāngarū Proper	875,535	...	
590	Jāṭi	732,296	...	
591	Harānī or Dēswālī	557,953	...	
592	<i>Braj Bhāṣhā or Antarbēdī</i>	7,864,274	...	
593	Standard	4,470,469	...	
594	Standard Proper	4,203,469	...	
595	Jadōbāṭī	140,000	...	
596	Sikarwārī	127,000	...	
597	North-Western	1,967,021	...	In the Census of 1921 nearly all speakers of Bihārī and Eastern Hindī were returned as speaking 'Hindī.' If we adopt the system of calculation followed on p. 335 of the Census Report of 1911 and take 42 per cent. of the total of the Census figures for Bihārī, Eastern Hindī, and Western Hindī, we find that the number of speakers of Western Hindī was approximately 41,210,916.
598	Southern	1,426,784	...	
599	Southern Dialect Proper	652,003	...	
600	Dāngī or Kā-kachhū-ki Bōlī	504,436	...	
601	Dūgar-wāṣā	108,766	...	
602	Kalimāl	81,216	...	
603	Dāngbhāṅg	80,363	...	
604	<i>Kanaujī</i>	4,481,500	...	
	Kanaujī Proper	3,201,500	...	

Serial No.	Name of Language or Dialect.	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS.		REMARKS.
		Survey Estimates (1891).	According to Census, 1921.	
606	Mixed Dialects	1,280,000	...	
607	Kanauji of Cawnpore	1,090,000		
608	Tirhārī of Cawnpore	40,000		
609	Kanauji of East Hardoi	150,000		
610	<i>Bundēlī or Bundēlkhāṇḍī</i>	6,869,201	...	
611	Standard	3,519,729	...	
612	Pāwārī	353,500	...	
613	Lodhantī or Raṭhōrā	145,500	...	
614	Khaṭōlā	891,200	...	
615	Mixed Dialects of the North-East	356,600	...	
616	Banāpharī	335,400		
617	Kuṇḍrī	11,000		
618	Nibhaṭṭā	10,200		
619	Bhādaurī or Tōwargarhī	1,313,000	...	
620	Broken Dialects of the South	289,672	...	
621	Lōdhī	18,600		
622	Chhindwara Bundēlī	145,500		
623	'Baghēlī'	35,000		
624	'Bundēlī'	83,500		
625	Pōwārī	3,000		
626	Gāolī	16,093		
627	Rāghobansī	3,114		
628	Kirārī	4,750		
	Others	43		
629	Kōshṭī Dialects	14,692		
630	Kumbhār Dialects	4,980		
631	Nāgpurī Hindī	105,900		
632	Pañjābī	12,762,639	16,233,596	
633	<i>Standard</i>	11,180,611	14,795,309	The difference between the figures of the Survey and those of the Census is due to the fact that the latter include many speakers of Lahndā. See Lahnds, above (No. 415).
634	Mājhī	2,807,628	...	
635	Jullundur Dōābī	2,258,769	...	
636	Dōābī Proper	2,051,448	...	
637, 638	Kahlūrī or Bilāspurī, and Hoshiarpur Pahārī	207,321		
639	Pōwādhi	1,397,146	...	
640	Pachhādī, Raṭhī, Jāṇḍī, or Nailī	38,990	...	
641	Mālwaī, Jāngalī, or Jāṭkī	2,130,054	...	
642	Bhaṭṭiānī	116,000	...	
643	Raṭhī of Bikaner	22,000		
644	'Bāgrī' of Fazilka	56,000		
645	Raṭhaurī of Ferozepore	38,000		
646	Pañjābī merging into Lahndā	2,432,024	...	
647	<i>Dōgrā or Dōgrī</i>	1,229,227	418,678	The difference between the figures of the Survey and those of the Census is probably due to the Kangrā Dialect being included in the latter as a form of Standard Pañjābī.
648	Dōgrā Proper	568,727	...	
649	Kaṇḍiālī	10,000	...	
650	Kāngrā Dialect	636,500	...	
651	Bhaṭṭiālī	14,000	...	
	<i>Unspecified</i>	352,801	1,019,609	
652	Gujarātī	10,646,227	9,551,992	According to the Survey, the number of speakers of Gujarātī in countries of which it was the vernacular was 9,313,469.
653	<i>Standard</i>	?	...	
654	<i>Nāgarī</i>	?	...	
655	<i>Bombay Dialect</i>	?	...	

Serial No.	Name of Language or Dialect.	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS.		REMARKS.
		Survey Estimates (1891).	According to Census, 1921.	
656	Gāmaḍiā	?	...	
657	Sur ^{te}	?	...	
658	Anāw ^{la} or Bhāthēlā	?	...	
659	Dialect of Eastern Broach	?	...	
660	Pārsī Gujarātī	?	...	
661	Charōtari	?	...	
662	Pāṭidārī	?	...	
663	Vaḍōdarī	?	...	
664	Gāmaḍiā of Ahmedabad	?	...	
665	Paṭṭanī	?	...	
666	Kāṭhiyāwāḍī	2,596,000	...	
667	Jhālāwāḍī	437,000	...	
668	Sōraṭhī	733,000	...	
669	Halaḍī	770,000	...	
670	Gōhilwāḍī	631,000	...	
671	Unspecified	25,000	...	
672	Vhōrāsāī	10,150	...	
673	Khār ^{wā}	?	...	
674	Paṭ ^{nūli}	5,800	...	The Survey figures refer only to the speakers found in the Bombay Presidency.
675	Kākarī	122	...	
676	Tārīmūkī or Ghisāḍī	1,669	...	
	Unspecified Dialects	1,330,977	...	
677	Bhili	2,691,701	1,855,617	The difference between the Survey figures and those of the Census is due to variation in classification. In regard to many dialects it is impossible to decide definitely whether they belong to Bhili, to Gujarātī, or to Rājasthānī. The classification of the Survey has been made with some care, and is most likely the more correct.
678	Bhīlī or Bhilōḍī	1,163,872	...	
679	Ahīrī	30,500	...	
680	Anārya or Pakāḍī	43,500	...	
681	Bāorī	43,000	...	
682	Barēl	1,000	...	
683	Chāraṇī	1,200	...	
684	Chōdh ^{rī}	121,258	...	
685	Dēhāwalī	45,000	...	
686	Ḍhōḍiā	60,000	...	
687	Ḍubli	14,050	...	
688	Gām ^{ṭī}	48,715	...	
689	Girāsīā	90,700	...	
690	Habūṛā	950	...	
691	Kōṅkaṇī	232,613	...	
692	Kōṭalī	40,000	...	
693	Mag ^{rī}	44,500	...	
694	Māwchī	30,000	...	
695	Nākurī or Bāglanī	13,000	...	
696	Nāik ^{ḍī}	12,100	...	
697	Nōrī	?	...	The figures of the Census of 1901 were 348. The number of speakers was not recorded for the Survey or in the Census of 1921. Pār ^{dhi} and Takap ^{kārī} are really the same language, as spoken by different tribes.
698	Panchāḷī	560	...	
699, 700	Pār ^{dhi} (5,410) and Takap ^{kārī} (3,238)	8,648	...	
701	Pāw ^{rī}	25,000	...	
702	Ranāwat	500	...	
703	Rāṇī Bhil	87,540	...	

Serial No.	Name of Language or Dialect.	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS.		REMARKS.
		Survey Estimates (1891).	According to Census, 1921.	
704	<i>Rāṭhāvī</i>	8,000	...	The remarks made against Bhili (No. 677) apply also here. It is certain that many speakers of this language escaped enumeration as such at the Census.
705	<i>Siyālgārī</i>	120	...	
706	<i>Wāg'āṭī</i>	525,375	...	
707	Khāndēśī	1,253,066	213,272	
708	<i>Standard</i>	817,736	...	
709	<i>Kuṇ'bhāū</i>	400,000	...	In the Census, some speakers of this language were recorded as speaking Hindi.
710	<i>Dāngī</i>	31,700	...	
711	<i>Raṅgārī</i>	3,630	...	
712	Rājasthānī	16,298,260	12,680,562	
713	<i>Mārwaṭī</i>	6,088,389	...	
714	Standard	1,591,160	...	
715	Eastern	1,974,864	...	
716	Mārwaṭī-Dhupdhārī	49,300		
717	Gōṛāwāṭī	15,000		
718	Ajmer Dialect	208,700		
719	Merwara Dialect	17,000		
720	Mēwāṭī	1,387,100		
721	Mērwaṭī	54,500		
722	Sarwaṭī	15,000		
723	Khairāṭī	228,264		
724	Southern	477,570	...	
725	Gōḍwāṭī	147,000		
726	Sirōhī	179,300		
727	Standard	171,300		
728	Ābū Lōk-ki Bōli	2,000		
729	Saṣṭh-ki Bōli	6,000		
730	Dēorāwāṭī	86,000		
731	Mārwaṭī-Gujarāṭī	65,270		
732	Western	685,649	...	
733	Thālī	480,900		
734	Mārwaṭī-Sindhī	131,960		
735	Dhaṭ'kī	72,789		
736	Northern	1,359,146	...	
737	Bikānēri	543,770		
738	Shēkhāwāṭī	488,017		
739	Bagrī	327,359		
740	Central Eastern Rājasthānī	2,907,200	...	
741	Jaipurī	1,687,899	...	
742	Standard	790,231		
743	Tōrāwāṭī	342,554		
744	Kāṭhāirā	127,957		
745	Chaurāsī	182,133		
746	Nāgarohāl	71,575		
747	Rājāwāṭī	173,449		
748	Kishangarhī	116,700	...	
749	Ajmēri	111,500	...	
750	Hārāuṭī	991,101	...	
751	Standard	943,101		
752	Sipārī	48,000		

Serial No.	Name of Language or Dialect.	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS.		REMARKS.
		Survey Estimates (1891).	According to Census, 1931.	
753	<i>North-Eastern Rājasthānī</i>	1,570,099	...	
754	Mewāṭī	1,121,154	...	
755	Standard	253,300		
756	Rāṭhī	222,200		
757	Nahārā Mēwāṭī	169,300		
758	Kāthēr Mēwāṭī	193,300		
	Unspecified	282,554		
759	Ahirwāṭī or Hirwāṭī	448,945	...	
760	<i>Mālvi</i>	4,350,507	...	
761	Mālvi Proper or Ahīrī	3,872,328	...	
762	Rāngri or Rāj-wāṭī		...	
763	Sōṇdwāṭī		...	
764	Mixed Dialects	274,723	...	
765	Hoshangabad Dialect	126,523		
766	Ḍhōlēwāṭī	119,000		
767	Bhōyārī	11,000		
768	Katīyāī	18,000		
769	Paṭ'vī	200		
770	<i>Nīmāḍī</i>	474,777	...	
771	<i>Banjārī or Labhānī</i>	158,500	...	
772	Labhānī of Panjab and Gujarat	23,733	...	
773	Other Banjārī	131,855	...	
774	Kakēri	40	...	
775	Bahrūpiā	2,372	...	
776	<i>Gujarī</i>	297,673	...	
777	Gujurī of Hazara	25,619	...	The figures originally available for the Survey were altogether incomplete, the language not having been recorded in the Census of 1891. The Survey figures here given are based on those of the Census of 1911. All the dialects mentioned are dealt with in the Survey.
778	Ajirī of Hazara		...	
779	Kashmir Gujarī		...	
780	Gujarī of the Plains	19,362	...	
	<i>Unspecified Dialects</i>	451,115	...	
	Pahārī Group	2,104,801	1,917,537	
781	Eastern Pahārī, Khas-kurā, or Naipālī	143,721	279,715	The number of speakers of this language in British India necessarily fluctuates. Most of them are temporary immigrants or Gorkhā soldiers.
782	<i>Standard</i>	143,721	279,715	
783	<i>Pālpā</i>	
784	Central Pahārī	1,107,612	3,853	The Census figures are certainly incorrect. Numerous speakers must have been returned as speaking Hindi.
785	<i>Kumaunī</i>	436,788	...	
786	Khasparjiyā	75,930	...	
787	Phaldākōṭiyā	20,908	...	
788	Pachhāī	95,750	...	
789	Rau-Chaubhāṭī	56,679	...	
790	Rau-Chaubhāṭī Proper	6,375		
791	Standard of Nainī Tal	18,047		
792	Chbakāṭiyā	25,800		
793	Rāmgārhiyā	3,957		
794	Bāzārī	2,000		
795	Bhābarī of Rampur	300	...	
796	Kumaiyā	37,696	...	
797	Chaugarkhiyā	37,210	...	
798	Gāngolā	37,734	...	
799	Dānpuriyā	23,851	...	
800	Sōriyālī	19,866	...	

Serial No.	Name of Language or Dialect.	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS.		REMARKS.
		Survey Estimates (1891).	According to Census, 1921.	
801	Askōṭi	10,964	...	
802	Sirāṣi	12,481	...	
803	Jōhārī	7,419	...	
804	<i>Garhwālī</i>	670,824	...	
805	Śrinagariyā	12,008	...	
806	Raṭhī or Raṭhwālī	63,057	...	
807	Lōhbyā	9,748	...	
808	Dasauliyā	17,022	...	
809	Badhānī	14,103	...	
810	Mājh-Kumaiyā	33,011	...	
811	Nagpuriyā	51,831	...	
812	Salānī	229,758	...	
813	Tehrī or Gaṅgāpāriyā	240,281	...	
814	Western Pahārī	853,468	1,633,915	
815	<i>Jaunsārī</i>	47,457	427,702	
816	<i>Sirmaurī</i>	124,562		
817	Dhārṭhī	82,739		
818	Giripārī	24,364		
819	Biśsau	17,459		
820	<i>Baghāṭī</i>	22,195		
821	<i>Kiūṭhālī</i>	188,763		
822	Kiūṭhālī Proper	43,577		
823	Haṇḍūrī	50,211		
824	Simla Sirāṣī	28,833		
825	Barāṣī	7,894	126,793	
826	Śōrāchōlī	2,428		
827	Kirni	3,938		
828	Kōchī	51,882		
829	<i>Satlaṣ Group</i>	38,893		
830	Śōdōchī	18,893		
831	Outer Sirāṣī	20,000		
832	<i>Kulu Group</i>	84,631		
833	Kuṭai	54,080		
834	Inner Sirāṣī	20,551		
835	Sainjī	10,000	237,934	
836	<i>Mandī Group</i>	212,184		
837	Maṇḍāṣālī	150,000		
838	Chhōṭā Baughālī	10,000		
839	Maṇḍāṣālī Pahārī or Maṇḍī Sirāṣī	52,184		
840	Sukēṭī	109,286		
841	<i>Chambā Group</i>	63,338		
842	Chamḍālī	14,946		
843	Gādī or Bharmaurī	27,301		
844	Churābī	3,701		
845	Pāngwālī	25,517	139,262	
846	<i>Bhadrawāh Group</i>	20,977		
847	Bhadrawāhī	4,540		
848	Bhaḷṣī		
849	Pādārī		
	<i>Unspecified</i>		
	Unspecified Pahārī		

The Survey figures for Gādī are based on the population figures of the Census of 1891. The two subsequent Censuses show a large increase in the population. The Survey figures are thus too low.

Serial No.	Name of Language or Dialect.	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS.		REMARKS.
		Survey Estimates (1891).	According to Census, 1921.	
	Unclassed Languages	101,671	15,598	
850	Burushaskī or <i>Khajuna</i>	?	...	The speakers of this language have never been subjected to a Census and their number is unknown. The language and its dialectic variations are described in the Survey.
851	<i>Standard of Hunza-Nagar</i>	?	...	
852	<i>Warshikwār or Biltum of Yāsin</i>	?	...	
853	Andamanese	...	580	Not dealt with in the Survey.
854	Gipsy Languages	101,671	15,018	These are mostly secret languages, and, as such, their numbers can hardly be obtained with any accuracy by the ordinary operations of a census. The Survey figures are the result of local inquiries.
855	<i>Bāldārī</i>	5,140	...	
856	<i>Bhāmṭī</i>	14	...	
857	<i>Qōm</i>	13,500	...	
858	<i>Gārōḍī</i>	?	...	
859	<i>Gulguliā</i>	853	...	
860	<i>Kaṇjarī</i>	7,085	...	
861	Kuchbandhī	?	...	
862	<i>Kōlhāṭī</i>	2,367	...	
863	<i>Lāḍī</i>	500	...	
864	<i>Machariū</i>	30	...	
865	<i>Malār</i>	2,309	...	
866	<i>Myānwālē or Lhārī</i>	?	...	
867	<i>Naṭī</i>	11,534	...	
868	<i>Qōkī</i>	2,814	...	
869	<i>Peṇḍhārī</i>	1,250	...	
870	<i>Qaṣārī</i>	2,700	...	
871	<i>Sāṣī</i>	51,550	...	
872	<i>Sikalgārī</i>	25	...	
	Language not returned	...	5,664	

Appendix IA.—Details of Languages and Dialects.

Serial No.	Name of Language or Dialect.	NUMBER OF LANGUAGES AND DIALECTS.			
		ACCORDING TO SURVEY.		ACCORDING TO CENSUS, 1921.	
		Languages.	Dialects.	Languages.	Dialects.
	Austrie Family	7	14	18	11
	Austro-Nesian Sub-Family	2	...
1, 2	Malay Group	2	...
	Austro-Asiatic Sub-Family	7	14	16	11
	Mōn-Khmēr Branch	1	3	10	...
	Mōn-Khmēr Group	1	...
3	Mōn	1	...
	Palaung-Wa Group	7	...
4	Palaung	1	...
5	Wa	1	...
6	Yanglam	1	...
	Danaw	1	...
7a	Others	3	...
	Khāsi Group	1	3	1	...
8	Khāsi	1	3	1	...
	Nicobar Group	1	...
13	Nicobarese	1	...
	Mundā Branch	6	11	6	11
14	Kherwārī	1	11	1	11
26	Kūrkū	1	...	1	...
27	Khariā	1	...	1	...
28	Juāng	1	...	1	...
29	Savara	1	...	1	...
30	Gadabā	1	...	1	...
	Karen Family	1	14
31	Karen	1	14
	Man Family	2	...
42	Yao	1	...
43	Miao or Hmōng	1	...
	Tibeto-Chinese Family	116	86	124	15
	Siamese-Chinese Sub-Family	3	4	7	...
	Tai Group	3	4	7	...
44	Lao	1	...
45	Siamese	1	...
46	Lū	1	...
47	Khün	1	...
48	Daye	1	...
49	Shān	1	1	1	...
51	Āhom	1
52	Khāmī	1	3	1	...
	Tibeto-Burman Sub-Family	113	82	117	15
	Tibeto-Himalayan Branch	32	31	20	6
	Tibetan Group	1	14	1	6
57	Bhōtiā	1	14	1	6

Serial No.	Name of Language or Dialect.	NUMBER OF LANGUAGES AND DIALECTS.			
		ACCORDING TO SURVEY.		ACCORDING TO CENSUS, 1921.	
		Languages.	Dialects.	Languages.	Dialects.
	Pronominalized Himalayan Group	22	16	10	...
	<i>Western Sub-Group</i>	<i>11</i>	...	<i>4</i>	...
72	Manchāṭi or Paṭni	1
73	Chamba Lāhulī	1
74	Bunān	1
75	Ranglōi, Gōndlā, or Tinan	1
76	Kanāshī	1	...	1	...
77	Kanaurī	1	...	1	...
78	Rangkas	1
79	Darmiyā	1
80	Chaudāngsī	1	...	1	...
81	Byāngsī	1
82	Janggali	1	...	1	...
	<i>Eastern Sub-Group</i>	<i>11</i>	<i>16</i>	<i>6</i>	...
83	Dhimāl	1	...	1	...
84	Thāmī	1	...	1	...
85	Limbū	1	...	1	...
86	Yakhā	1	...	1	...
87	Khambū	1	16	1	...
88	Rāi or Jimdā	1	...	1	...
106	Vāyu or Hāy	1
107	Chēpāng	1
108	Kusūnda	1
109	Bhrāmu	1
110	Thāksya	1
	Non-Pronominalized Himalayan Group	9	1	9	...
111	Gurung	1	...	1	...
112	Murmi	1	...	1	...
113	Sunwār	1	...	1	...
114	Māgarī	1	...	1	...
115	Nēwārī	1	1	1	...
118	Róng or Lepcha	1	...	1	...
119	Kāmī	1	...	1	...
120	Mānjhī	1	...	1	...
121	Tōṭō	1	...	1	...
	North Assam Branch	5	...	5	...
122	Aka or Hrusso	1	...	1	...
123	Abor	1	...	1	...
124	Miri	1	...	1	...
125	Daflā	1	...	1	...
126	Mishmi	1	...	1	...
	Assam-Burmese Branch	76	51	92	9
	Bārā or Bodo Group	9	15	9	...
127	Bārā, Bodo, or Plains Kāchārī	1	1	1	...
130	Lalung	1	...	1	...

Serial No.	Name of Language or Dialect.	NUMBER OF LANGUAGES AND DIALECTS.			
		ACCORDING TO SURVEY.		ACCORDING TO CENSUS, 1921.	
		Languages.	Dialects.	Languages.	Dialects.
131	Dīmā-sā or Hills Kāchārī	1	1	1	...
134	Gārō	1	6	1	...
142	Kōch	1	5	1	...
148	Rābhā	1	2	1	...
151	Tipurā or Mrung	1	...	1	...
152	Chutiya	1	...	1	...
153	Morān	1	...	1	...
	Nāgā Group	29	18	14	...
	<i>Western Nāgā Sub-Group</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>...</i>
154	Angāmi	1	4	1	...
159	Semā	1	2	1	...
162	Rengmā or Unzā	1	2	1	...
165	Kezhāmā	1	...	1	...
	<i>Central Nāgā Sub-Group</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>...</i>
166	Āo or Hatigoria	1	2	1	...
169	Lhōtā or Tsōntsū	1	...	1	...
170	Tengsa Nāgā	1
171	Thukumi	1
172	Yachumi	1
	<i>Eastern Nāgā Sub-Group</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>...</i>	<i>...</i>	<i>...</i>
173	Angwānku or Tableng	1
174	Tamlu or Chingmēgnu	1
175	Banjarā	1
176	Mutoniā	1
177	Mohongiā, Borduariā, or Pāniduariā	1
178	Namsangiā	1
179	Chāng or Mojung	1
180	Asiringiā	1
181	Mōshāng	1
182	Shānggē	1
	<i>Nāgā-Bodo Sub-Group</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>...</i>
183	Ēmpēo or Kachchā Nāgā	1	3	1	...
187	Kabui or Kapwi	1	...	1	...
188	Khoirāo	1	...	1	...
	<i>Nāgā-Kuki Sub-Group</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>...</i>
189	Mikir	1	3	1	...
194	Sopvomā or Māo Nāgā	1	...	1	...
195	Marām	1	...	1	...
196	Miyāngkhāng	1
197	Kwoireng or Līyāng	1
198	Tāngkhul	1	2	1	...
202	Maring	1	...	1	...
	Kachin Group	1	1	9	1
203	Kachin	1	1	9	1
	Kuki-Chin Group	34	14	29	8

Serial No.	Name of Language or Dialect.	NUMBER OF LANGUAGES AND DIALECTS.			
		ACCORDING TO SURVEY.		ACCORDING TO CENSUS, 1921.	
		Languages.	Dialects.	Languages.	Dialects.
	<i>Meithei Sub-Group</i>	1	...	1	...
206	Manipuri, Meithei, Kathē, or Pōṇṇā	1	...	1	...
	<i>Northern Chin Sub-Group</i>	5	4	5	...
207	Thādo	1	4	1	...
212	Soktē	1	...	1	...
213	Siyin	1	...	1	...
214	Rāltē	1	...	1	...
215	Paitē	1	...	1	...
	<i>Central Chin Sub-Group</i>	5	7	4	8
216	Shunkla or Tashōn	1	1	1	1
219	Lai	1	4	1	7
224	Lushēi or Duliēn	1	2	1	...
227	Banjōgi	1	...	1	...
228	Pānkhū	1
	<i>Old Kuki Sub-Group</i>	15	3	13	...
229	Hrāngkhol, Rāngkhōl, or Hrāngchal	1	1	1	...
232	Hallām	1	2	1	...
236	Langrong	1
237	Aimol	1	...	1	...
238	Chiru	1	...	1	...
239	Kolhreng or Kolrēn	1	...	1	...
240	Kōm	1	...	1	...
241	Kyau or Chaw	1	...	1	...
242	Hmār	1	...	1	...
243	Chote	1	...	1	...
244	Muntak	1
245	Karum	1
246	Pūrūm	1	...	1	...
247	Anāl	1	...	1	...
248	Hirōi-Lamgāng	1	...	1	...
249	Vaiphei	1	...
	<i>Southern Chin Sub-Group</i>	8	...	6	...
250	Chinmè	1
251	Welaung	1
252	Chinbōk	1
253	Yindu	1	...	1	...
254	Chinbōn	1	...	1	...
255	Taungtha	1	...	1	...
256	Khyang or Shō	1	...	1	...
257	Khami, Khweymi, or Kumi	1	...	1	...
258	Anu	1	...
259	M'hang
	<i>Burma Group</i>	2	...	16	...
260	Maingtha	1	...
261	Szi or Atsi	1	...

Serial No.	Name of Language or Dialect.	NUMBER OF LANGUAGES AND DIALECTS.			
		ACCORDING TO SURVEY.		ACCORDING TO CENSUS, 1921.	
		Languages.	Dialects.	Languages.	Dialects.
262	Lashi	1	...
263	Maru	1	...
264	Mrü	1	...	1	...
265	Burmese	1	...
266	Arakanese	1	...	1	...
267	Taungyo	1	...
268	Intha	1	...
269	Danu	1	...
270	Tavoyan	1	...
271	Chaungtha	1	...
272	Yanbye	1	...
272a	Others	3	...
	Lolo-Mos'o Group	11	...
273	Lolo	1	...
274	Mo-s'o	1	...
275	Lisu	1	...
276	Aka	1	...
277	Kwi	1	...
277a	Others	6	...
	Sak (Lüi) Group	1	2	4	...
278	Lüi	1	2
281	Kadu	1	...
282	Daingnet	1	...
283	Ganan	1	...
284	Sak or Thet	1	...
	Dravidian Family	16	23	15	...
	Dravida Group	7	10	7	...
285	Tamil	1	6	1	...
293	Malayālam	1	1	1	...
296	Kanarese	1	3	1	...
301	Koḍagu or Coorgi	1	...	1	...
302	Tulu	1	...	1	...
303	Toda	1	...	1	...
304	Kōta	1	...	1	...
	Intermediate Group	5	6	6	...
305	Kurukh or Orāo ²⁸	1	...	1	...
306	Malhar	1	...
307	Malto or Maler	1	...	1	...
308	Kui, Kandhi, or Khond	1	...	1	...
309	Kōlāmī	1	2	1	...
313	Gōṇḍī	1	4	1	...
	Andhra Language	1	7	1	...
319	Telugu	1	7	1	...
	North-Western Language	1	...	1	...
328	Brahūī	1	...	1	...

Serial No.	Name of Language or Dialect.	NUMBER OF LANGUAGES AND DIALECTS.			
		ACCORDING TO SURVEY.		ACCORDING TO CENSUS, 1921.	
		Languages.	Dialects.	Languages.	Dialects.
	Semi-Dravidian Hybrids	2
329	Ladhāḍī	1
330	Bharia	1
	Indo-European Family	38	402	26	9
	Aryan Sub-Family	38	402	26	9
	Eranian Branch	8	35	3	1
	Persian Group	1	5	1	1
331	Persian	1	5	1	1
	Eastern Group	7	30	2	...
	<i>Afghanistan-Baluchistan Sub-Group</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>26</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>...</i>
337	Paṣṭō	1	20	1	...
360	Ormuri or Bargistā	1
361	Balōchī	1	6	1	..
	<i>Ghālchah Sub-Group</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>...</i>	<i>...</i>
370	Wakhī	1
371	Shighnī	1	1
373	Ishkāshmi	1	2
377	Munjānī or Mungī	1	1
	Dardic or Pisācha Branch	13	22	4	...
	Kāfir Group	9	2
	<i>Kāfir Sub-Group</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>...</i>	<i>...</i>	<i>...</i>
379	Bashgālī	1
380	Wai-alā	1
381	Wasī-veri or Veron	1
382	Ashkund	1
	<i>Kalāshā-Pashai Sub-Group</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>...</i>	<i>...</i>
383	Kalāshā	1
384	Gawar-bati or Narsātī	1
385	Pashai, Laghmānī, or Dēhgānī	1	2
388	Dīrī	1
389	Tirāhī	1
	Khōwār Group	1	...	1	...
390	Khōwār, Chitrālī, or Arniyā	1	...	1	...
	Dard Group	3	20	3	..
391	Shiqā	1	7	1	...
399	Kāshmīrī	1	6	1	...
407	Kōhistānī	1	7	1	...
	Indo-Aryan Branch	17	345	19	8
	Sanskrit	1	...
	Outer Sub-Branch	7	110	8	3
	North-Western Group	2	31	2	2
415	Lahndā or Western Pañjabī	1	24	1	2
445	Sindhī	1	7	1	...
	Southern Group	1	39	2	1

Serial No.	Name of Language or Dialect.	NUMBER OF LANGUAGES AND DIALECTS.			
		ACCORDING TO SURVEY.		ACCORDING TO CENSUS, 1921.	
		Languages.	Dialects.	Languages.	Dialects.
455	Marāṭhī	1	39	1	1
499	Singhalese	1	...
	Eastern Group	4	40	4	...
502	Oriyā	1	2	1	...
506	Bihārī	1	19	1	...
529	Bengali	1	16	1	...
552	Assamese	1	3	1	...
	Mediate Sub-Branch	1	18	1	...
557	Eastern Hindī	1	18	1	...
	Inner Sub-Branch	9	217	9	5
	Central Group	6	161	6	1
581	Western Hindī	1	39	1	...
632	Pañjābī	1	15	1	1
652	Gujarātī	1	21	1	...
677	Bhili	1	28	1	...
707	Khāndēśī	1	3	1	...
712	Rājasthānī	1	55	1	...
	Pahārī Group	3	56	3	4
781	Eastern Pahārī, Khas-kurā, or Naipālī	1	1	1	...
784	Central Pahārī	1	26	1	...
814	Western Pahārī	1	29	1	4
	Unclassed Languages	2	19	2	...
850	Burushaskī or Khajuna	1	1
853	Andamanese	1	...
854	Gipsy Languages	1	18	1	...
	Total for all India	179	544	188	49

Appendix IB.—Summary of the General Tables.

Name of Language-Group.	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS.	
	Survey Estimates (1891).	According to Census, 1921.
Austriac Family	3,052,046	4,529,351
<i>Austro-Nesian Sub-Family</i>	...	5,561
Indo-Nesian Branch	...	5,561
Malay Group	...	5,561
Austro-Asiatic Sub-Family	3,052,046	4,523,790
Môn-Khmêr Branch	177,293	549,917
Môn-Khmêr Group	...	189,263
Palaung-Wa Group	...	147,889
Khâsi Group	177,293	204,103
Nicobar Group	...	8,662
Mundâ Branch	2,874,753	3,973,873
Karen Family	...	1,114,026
Man Family	...	591
Tibeto-Chinese Family	1,984,512	12,885,346
<i>Siamese-Chinese Sub-Family</i>	4,205	926,335
Tai Group	4,205	926,335
Tibeto-Burman Sub-Family	1,980,307	11,959,011
Tibeto-Himalayan Branch	399,742	440,263
Tibetan Group	205,508	231,885
Pronominalized Himalayan Group	93,978	107,841
Non-Pronominalized Himalayan Group	100,256	100,537
North Assam Branch	36,910	80,482
Assam-Burmese Branch	1,543,655	11,438,266
Bodo Group	618,659	715,696
Nāgā Group	292,799	338,634
Kachin Group	1,920	151,196
Kuki-Chin Group	567,625	796,314
Burma Group	62,652	9,335,595
Lolō-Mos'ō Group	...	75,686
Sak (Lûi) Group	...	25,145
Dravidian Family	53,073,261	64,128,052
Dravida Group	30,940,550	37,285,594
Intermediate Group	2,180,858	3,056,598
Andhra Language	19,783,901	23,601,492
North-Western Language	165,500	184,368
Semi-Dravidian Hybrids	2,452	...
Indo-European Family	231,874,403	232,852,817
<i>Aryan Sub-Family</i>	231,874,403	232,852,817
Erastian Branch	4,617,890	1,987,943
Persian Group	7,579	6,268
Eastern Group	4,610,311	1,981,675

Name of Language-Group.	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS.	
	Survey Estimates (1891).	According to Census, 1921.
Dardic or Pisācha Branch	1,195,902	1,304,319
Kāfir Group	?	...
Khōwār Group	?	121
Dard Group	1,195,902	1,304,198
Indo-Aryan Branch	226,060,611	229,560,555
<i>Sanskrit</i>	...	356
Outer Sub-Branch	117,778,342	123,328,825
North-Western Group	10,162,251	9,023,972
Southern Group	18,011,948	18,797,831
Eastern Group	89,604,143	61,171,923
Mediate Sub-Branch	24,511,647	1,399,528
Inner Sub-Branch	83,770,622	139,166,945
Central Group	81,665,821	137,249,408
Pahārī Group	2,104,801	1,917,537
Unclassed Languages	101,671	15,598
Total for all Indian Languages	290,085,893	315,525,781

APPENDIX II.

List of Gramophone Records available at the time of writing this Volume.

[Sets of these records have been deposited for the use of Students at the India Office Library, the British Museum, the Royal Asiatic Society, the School of Oriental Studies, the Bodleian Library, the University Libraries of Cambridge, Dublin, and Edinburgh, and the Institut de France.]

Language, with Serial No. in Appendix I.	Province.	Distinguishing No. of Record.
MÔN-KHMĒR.		
3. Mōn or Talaing	Burma	5501-AK., 5510-AK.
4. Katurr Palaung	Do. . . .	5498-AK., 5527-AK.
7. Danaw	Do. . . .	5525½-AK.
MUNḌĀ.		
15. Santālī	Bihar and Orissa . .	3297-Y., 3298-Y., 3301-Y.
16. Munḍārī	Do. . . .	3290-Y., 3291-Y., 3292-Y., 3303-Y., 3305-Y., 3306-Y.
19. Koḍā-kū	Central Provinces . .	5460-AK., 5461-AK.
20. Hō	Bihar and Orissa . .	3294-Y., 3295-Y., 3296-Y., 3299-Y., 3300-Y.
25. Korwā	Central Provinces . .	5457-AK., 5458-AK., 5459-AK.
26. Kūrkū	Do. . . .	5477-AK., 5478-AK., 5479-AK., 5488-AK.
27. Kharīā	Bihar and Orissa . .	3289-Y., 3293-Y.
29. Savara	Madras	136-AK., 137-AK.
30. Gadabā	Central Provinces . .	5471-AK., 5472-AK.
Do. . . .	Madras	139-AK., 140-AK., 141-AK.
KAREN.		
32. Bwè	Burma	5511-AK.
32. Karenni (Red Karen) . .	Do. . . .	5503-AK., 5515-AK.
33. Karenbyu (White Karen) .	Do. . . .	5514-AK.
34. Sgaw	Do. . . .	5505-AK., 5507-AK.
35. Pwo	Do. . . .	5504-AK., 5506-AK.
35. Mopwā	Do. . . .	5512-AK.
36. Taungthū	Do. . . .	5500-AK.

Language, with Serial No. in Appendix I.	Province.	Distinguishing No. of Record.
KAREN—contd.		
37. Padaung	Burma	5516-AK.
39. Gheko	Do.	5517-AK.
41 ^a . Wewaw	Do.	5518-AK.
TAL.		
47. Khün	Do.	5513 $\frac{1}{2}$ -AK.
49. Shān	Do.	5508-AK., 5509-AK.
TIBETO-BURMAN.		
111. Gurung	United Provinces	6951-AK.
114. Māgarī	Do.	6950-AK.
115. Nēwārī	Do.	6952-AK.
204. Chingpaw	Burma	5519-AK., 5522-AK.
219. Lai	Do.	5533-AK.
255. Taungtha	Do.	5531-AK., 5532-AK.
(?) 256. Southern Chin	Do.	5502-AK.
263. Maru	Do.	5520-AK.
265. Burmese	Do.	5497-AK.
266. Arakanese	Do.	5499-AK.
267. Taungyo	Do.	5523-AK.
268. Intha	Do.	5524-AK.
269. Danu	Do.	5526-AK.
270. Tavoyan	Do.	5530-AK.
272 ^a . Phun	Do.	5528-AK., 5529-AK.
272 ^a . Yaw	Do.	5534-AK.
275. Lisu (Lis'aw)	Do.	5521-AK.
DRAVIDIAN.		
285. Tamil	Madras	142-BK., 143-BK., 148-BK., 149-BK.
287. Korava	Do.	154-BK.
289. Irula	Do.	128-AK., 130-AK., 131-AK.
290. Kasuva	Do.	126-AK., 127-AK.

Language, with Serial No. in Appendix I.	Province.	Distinguishing No. of Record.
DRAVIDIAN—contd.		
293. Malayalam	Madras	113-AK., 114-AK., 144-BK., 145-BK., 150-BK., 151-BK., 156-BK., 157-BK.
296. Kanarese	Bombay	5535-AK., 5536-AK., 5537-AK.
Do.	Madras	146-BK., 147-BK., 152-BK.
298. Badaga	Do.	115-AK., 120-AK.
299. Kurumba	Do.	129-AK.
301. Kodagu	Do.	118-AK., 119-AK.
302. Tulu	Do.	116-AK., 117-AK., 132-AK., 133-AK.
303. Toda	Do.	122-AK., 123-AK.
304. Kōṭa	Do.	124-AK., 125-AK.
305. Kurukh	Bihar and Orissa	3302-Y.
308. Kui	Madras	134-AK., 135-AK., 138-AK.
309. Kolāmi	Central Provinces	5482-AK., 5483-AK.
313. Gōṇḍi	Do.	5466-AK., 5467-AK.
317. Marāi	Do.	5462-AK., 5463-AK.
318. Parji	Do.	5468-AK., 5469-AK.
319. Telugu	Do.	5475-AK., 5476-AK.
Do.	Madras	159-BK., 164-BK., 165-BK.
INDO-ARYAN.		
... Sanskrit	United Provinces	6954-AK., 6955-AK., 6956-AK., 6957-AK.
... Vedic Sanskrit	6953-AK.
445. Sindhi	Bombay	5702-AK., 5703-AK., 5704-AK.
447. Sirāiki Sindhi	Do.	5706-AK.
448. Tharēli	Do.	5705-AK.
455. Marāṭhi	Do.	5540-AK., 5541-AK., 5542-AK.
Do.	Madras	162-BK., 163-BK.
477. Bērari Marāṭhi	Central Provinces	5493-AK., 5494-AK.
478. Nāgpuri Marāṭhi	Do.	5489-AK., 5490-AK.
481. Mixed Marāṭhi of Chhindwara (? Gōvāri).	Do.	5484-AK., 5485-AK.
490. Halābi	Do.	5464-AK., 5465-AK.

Language, with Serial No. in Appendix I.	Province.	Distinguishing No. of Record.
INDO-ARYAN— <i>contd.</i>		
494. Kōṅkaṇī	Bombay	5538-AK., 5539-AK.
502. Oṛiyā	Bihar and Orissa	6590-AK., 6596-AK.
507. Maithilī	Do. . . .	6589-AK., 6595-AK.
516. Magahī	Do. . . .	6585-AK., 6591-AK.
519. Bhojpurī	Do. . . .	6586-AK., 6587-AK., 6592-AK., 6593-AK.
	United Provinces	6964-AK., 6965-AK., 6968-AK., 6969-AK.
526. Nagpurī	Bihar and Orissa	6588-AK., 6594-AK.
559. Baghēlī	Central Provinces	5491-AK., 5492-AK.
	United Provinces	6972-AK., 6973-AK.
572. Chhattisgarhī	Central Provinces	5473-AK., 5474-AK.
585. Urdū (Delhi)	Delhi	6825-AK., 6826-AK.
Urdū (Lucknow)	United Provinces	6974-AK., 6975-AK.
586. Hindī (Agra)	Do. . . .	6960-AK., 6961-AK.
Hindī (Benares)	Do. . . .	6966-AK., 6967-AK.
592. Braj Bhākhā	Do. . . .	6958-AK., 6959-AK.
604. Kanaujī	Do. . . .	6962-AK., 6963-AK.
610. Bundēlī	Do. . . .	6970-AK., 6971-AK.
Do. . . .	Central Provinces	5480-AK., 5481-AK.
652. Gujarātī	Bombay	5696-AK., 5697-AK., 5698-AK.
674. Paṭṭāṇlī	Madras	160-BK., 161-BK.
677. Bhilī (Gujarātī)	Bombay	5699-AK., 5700-AK., 5701-AK.
Bhilī (Marāṭhī)	Do. . . .	5544-AK., 5547-AK., 5548-AK.
707. Khāndēśī	Do. . . .	5543-AK., 5545-AK., 5546-AK.
754. Mēwātī	Delhi	6827-AK., 6838-AK.
759. Ahīrwātī	Do. . . .	6828-AK., 6837-AK.
770. Nīmāḍī	Central Provinces	5486-AK., 5487-AK.
781. Khas-kurā	United Provinces	6948-AK., 6949-AK.
785. Kumaunī	Do. . . .	6946-AK., 6947-AK.
804. Garhwālī	Do. . . .	6944-AK., 6945-AK.
815. Jaunsārī	Do. . . .	6943-AK.

APPENDIX III.

INDEX OF LANGUAGE-NAMES.

NOTE

The following Index contains all the language-names occurring in the pages of the Linguistic Survey, with references to the place or places where each is mentioned. For the sake of completeness I have added all other names of Indian languages that I have collected from many different sources and more especially from the Census Reports of 1891, 1901, 1911 and 1921. I must specially acknowledge my indebtedness to the excellent Glossary of Obscure Language-names, given by Mr. Sedgwick as Appendix B. of the 1921 Bombay Census Report. With its aid, supplemented by further information kindly supplied by him, I have been able to clear up many points that had hitherto been doubtful.

A Linguistic Survey of Burma has been begun, and a valuable preliminary list of the languages spoken in that Province has already been issued. With the permission of the Government of Burma, I have incorporated in the present Index the names of many languages mentioned in that list. As these names were not recorded in the Linguistic Survey of India,—which did not extend to Burma,—their inclusion will greatly enhance the completeness of this Index.

The only contraction in this Index that needs explanation is the letter L. which appears frequently in the 7th column. This means the Standard List of Words and Sentences which is appended to each group of languages throughout the Survey.

Language or Dialect.	Number in Classified List.	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS.		WHERE DEALT WITH IN THE LINGUISTIC SURVEY.			REMARKS.
		According to the Linguistic Survey.	According to the Census of 1921.	Volume.	Part.	Page.	
Ābeng	136	38,000	...	III	ii	68, 81, 134 (L.)	A dialect of Gāro (134), spoken in Assam (Garo Hills) and Bengal (Mymensingh).
Abhaypurya	III	ii	332	Another name for Banpara (175).
Abor	123	170	13,317	III	i	568, 584, 623 (L.)	A Tibeto-Burman language, North Assam group, spoken in East Assam outside settled British Territory. The Census figures include speakers of Miri (124).
Ābū Lōk-kī Bōli or Rāthī	728	2,000	...	IX	ii	90, 98	A form of the Sirōhī sub-dialect (726) of the Mārwarī (713) dialect of Rājasthānī (712).
Achang or Chang	III	iii	382	The Chinese name for Mainglha (260).
Āchik Kusik	III	ii	68	Another name for Gāro (134).
Āchik, or Gārō standard dialect.	135	55,400	...	III	ii	68, 73, 133 (L.)	A dialect of Gārō, spoken in Assam (Garo Hills and vicinity).
Adiya	Another name for Malayālam (293), used in Coorg.
Adkuri	VII	...	331	A form of Hal'hi (490).
Adōli	A form of 'Hindi' reported in the Baroda Census Report for 1891.
Adraman	Reported in the Bombay Census Report for 1891 as a form of Paṣṭō (337).
Advichanchi	Reported in the Bombay Census Report for 1921 as a corrupt Kanarese (296) spoken by members of a wandering tribe in Dharwar. Cf. Harapshikari.
Afghānī	A name sometimes used for Paṣṭō (337).
Afghanistan-Baluchistan sub-group.	...	4,610,311	1,981,675	X	...	3	A sub-group of the Eastern group of the Eranian branch of the Aryan sub-family of the Indo-European family of languages. The Survey figures for this sub-group include speakers of languages who live outside British India, in countries not subject to the operations of the Census.
Afridi	345	X	...	46	A sub-dialect of the North-Eastern dialect (338) of Paṣṭō (337).
Agamse	A form of Urdū (585) reported in the Bombay Census Report for 1891.
Āg'rī	462	22,826	...	VII	...	61, 63, 95	A sub-dialect of the Konkani standard dialect (457) of Marāṭhī (455). It is spoken by the Āgaris of Kolaba.
Agariā	23	1,616	524	IV	...	135	A dialect of Kherwārī (14), a Muṇḍā language, spoken in Chota Nagpur.
Agarwālā	A name sometimes used for Mārwarī (713).
Agnānī	A corruption of 'Afghānī,' i.e. Paṣṭō (337). Used in Madras.
Aghar	VI	...	152	A form of the Jūrar (565) sub-dialect of Baghel (559). Spoken in Banda, U. P.
Agōriā	IV	...	135	Another spelling of Agariā (23).
Ahi	A Lolo language spoken beyond the Burma frontier in Western China.
Āhamiyā	V	i	393	Another name for Assamese (552).
Ahirahu	The same as Ahirāpi.
Ahirāpi	IX	iii	203	Another name for Khāndēsi (707).
Ahīrī	IX	i	53 (Gr.), 240, 256, 263, 305 (L.)	Another name for the standard sub-dialect of Mālvi (761).
Ahīrī or Āyārī	679	30,500	...	IX	iii	5, 63	A dialect of Bhili (677) spoken in Cutch. Cf. Vol. VIII, Part i, p. 183.
Ahīrwāl	IX	ii	49	Another name for Ahīrwāṭī (759).
Ahīrwāṭī or Hīrwāṭī . .	759	448,945	...	IX	ii	3, 43, 49, 233	A sub-dialect of North-Eastern (753), Rājasthānī (712). Spoken in the South-East Panjab.
Āhom	51	II	...	61, 67, 81, 214 (L.)	A Tai (Siamese-Chinese) language formerly spoken in Assam. Now extinct.
Ahrānī	The same as Ahirāpi, another name for Khāndēsi (707).

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Aibur	A language, probably Kuki-Chin, reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 3,400 people in the Chin Hills. It is certainly not the same as the Aibor (123) spoken in Assam.
Aimol	237	750	387	III	iii	3, 181, 214, 293 (L.).	A Kuki-Chin language spoken in Manipur. The Survey figures are merely a rough estimate.
Aiton	50	200	...	II	...	65, 193	A dialect of Shān (49) spoken in Assam. Also called 'Shām Dōān.' 'Shām' is Assamese for 'Shān,' and 'Dōān' is Assamese for 'foreign tongue.'
Ajiri of Hazara . .	778	25,619	...	IX	iv	10, 941, 949, 965 (L.).	A sub-dialect of the Gujarī dialect (776) of Rājasthānī (712). Spoken in Hazara and Swat. The Survey figures include the speakers of Gujarī of Hazara (777).
Ajmer sub-dialect .	718	208,700	...	IX	ii	74	A sub-dialect of the Mārwarī dialect (713) of Rājasthānī (712). It is spoken in Ajmere.
Ajmērī	749	111,500	...	IX	ii	31, 200	A sub-dialect of Central Eastern (740) Rājasthānī (712). It is spoken in Ajmere.
Aka or Hrusso . .	122	20	71	III	i	568, 622 (L.)	A language of the North Assam group of the Tibeto-Burman sub-family. Mainly spoken outside British Territory beyond the Assam Frontier.
Aka (Akha) or Kaw .	276	...	34,265	III	iii	383	This language does not fall within the scope of this Survey. In the Burma Linguistic Survey it is reported to be spoken by 33,665 people in the Southern Shan States. In the Census of 1921 it is classed as belonging to the Lolo-Mos'o group. See remarks under that group. The name is spelt 'Akha' in the Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Part I, Vol. I, p. 692.
Akō	377a	...	51	III	iii	383	This language does not fall within the scope of this Survey. In the Burma Linguistic Survey it is reported to be spoken in the Kēngtūng Southern Shan State. In the Census of 1921 it is classed as belonging to the Lolo-Mos'o group. See remarks under that group.
Alba	Incorrect for Hal'bi (490).
A-mōk	A Mōn-Khmēr dialect spoken in the Kēngtūng Southern Shan State (Burma).
Amri	192	725	...	III	ii	380	A dialect of Mikir (189) spoken in Assam.
An	Another name for Ann (258).
Anāl	247	750	3,065	III	iii	3, 181, 272, 295 (L.).	An Old Kuki language spoken in Manipur. The Survey figures are admittedly a rough estimate.
Anāolā	i.g. Anāw'lā (658).
Anārya or Pahādī .	680	43,500	...	IX	iii	5, 47	Spoken in Rewa Kantha. A form of Bhīlī (677).
Anāw'lā or Bhāthēlā .	658	IX	ii	388	A dialect of Gujarātī (652) spoken by Anāolā of Balsar in Surat.
Andamanese . . .	853	...	580	An unclassified language. Spoken in the Andamans. Not dealt with in this Survey.
Andhra	IV	...	576	Another name for Telugu (319).
Andhra Group	19,783,901	23,601,492	IV	...	284	One of the groups of the Dravidian family of languages.
Andro	279	III	iii	43, 45 (L.)	One of the Lūi (278) languages, belonging to the Tibeto-Burman sub-family, but the exact grouping of which is uncertain. It is closely related to Sengmai (279) and Kadu (281).
Angāmi	154	35,410	43,050	III	ii	193, 203, 204, 246 (L.).	A language of the Western sub-group of the Naga group of languages. In Vol. III, Part ii, p. 265, it is compared with Āo. Spoken in the Naga Hills, Assam.
Angka	III	i	573	Another name for Aka (122).
Āng-kū	A Mōn-Khmēr dialect spoken in the Kēngtūng Southern Shan State.
Ang-sa	Another name for Intha (268), q.v.
Angwānku or Tableng .	173	5,000	...	III	ii	193, 329, 331, 342 (L.).	An Eastern Naga language spoken in the Naga Hills, Assam, and beyond the frontier. The Survey figures include speakers of Tamil (174).
Annamese	This language was formerly classed as Mōn-Khmēr. It is a mixed form of speech, and is now classed as Tai.

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Antarbēdī or Antardēśī	IX	i	69, 70	Another name for Braj Bhākhā (592).
Antar Pathā	VI	...	149	A variety of Gahōrā (564).
Anu .	258	...	712	III	iii	329	A Southern Chin language, which does not fall within the scope of this Survey. In the Linguistic Survey of Burma, it is said to be spoken by 684 people in Northern Arakan.
Anung	The same as Nung (277a), <i>q.v.</i>
Anyā Tayok	A name used in Burma for Yūnanese.
Āo or Hatigorris .	166	15,500	30,142	III	ii	193, 265, 292 (L.).	A Central Naga language spoken in the Naga Hills, Assam.
Aphlone	A sub-dialect of Pwo Karen (35), reported in the Linguistic Survey of Burma as spoken in the Thatone District. This language did not fall within the scope of this Survey.
Aprīdī	X	...	46	Another, and more correct, spelling of the name Afrīdī (345), <i>q.v.</i>
Arakanese or Maghī .	266	44,661	304,549	III	iii	379	This language belongs to the Burma group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. Being mainly spoken in Burma, it did not fall within the scope of this Survey. In the Burma Linguistic Survey it is reported as spoken by 462,443 people, principally in Akyab, Sandoway, and Bassein.
Arangā	Another spelling of Erāngā, <i>q.v.</i> So reported from the Chhattisgarh Feudatory States.
Ara Tulu	A form of Tuḷu (302).
Arava or Aravu	IV	...	298	Another name for Tamil (285).
Arbānī	A Gipsy language reported in the Bombay Census Report for 1891. Not since identified.
Ārē	The same as Āryē, a name sometimes given to Marāṭhī (455) in Southern India.
Arleng	III	ii	380	Another name for Mikir (189).
Arniyā	VIII	ii	2, 133	Another name for Khōwār or Chitrālī (390).
Arnyā	Ditto.
Arshov	A form of Paṣhtō (337) reported in the Bombay Census Report for 1891, but not since traced.
Arung	III	ii	411, 433 (L.)	Another name for Ēmpēo (183).
Arvī	The same as Arava, <i>q.v.</i>
ryan Sub-family	231,874,403	232,852,817	A sub-family of the Indo-European Family of languages.
Āryē or Ārē	'Aryan,' a name sometimes given to Marāṭhī (455) in Southern India.
A-sak	Another name for Kadu (281).
Asāmī	A name sometimes used outside Assam for Assamese (552).
Ashkund .	382	VIII	ii	2, 29, 68	A Kāfir language spoken in Kāfiristān, belonging to the Dardic or Pisācha Branch of the Aryan languages. It is spoken outside British Territory, and nothing is known about it. The name is better spelt Ashkū, see Addenda Majora, p. 248, where more information is given about the language.
A-shō or Ashō-zo	III	iii	331	Another name for Khyang or Shō (256).
Asi Lepai	III	iii	382	Another name for Szi (261), <i>q.v.</i> Cf. Atsi.
Askōṭī or Askōṭiyā .	801	10,964	...	IX	iv	110, 244	A sub-dialect of the Kumaunī (785) dialect of Central Pahārī (784). Spoken in Almora.
Assam-Burmese Branch	1,543,655	11,438,266	A branch of the Tibeto-Burman sub-family of the Tibeto-Chinese family of languages. It is spoken in Assam and Burma, and is dealt with in Parts ii and iii of Vol. III of the Survey. As most of the speakers are in Burma, this Survey did not take cognisance of them, and this accounts for the difference between the Survey figures and those of the Census.
Assamese .	552	1,447,552	1,727,328	V	i	2, 393	A member of the Eastern Group of the Outer Sub-Branch of the Indo-Aryan languages.
Assamese, Standard .	553	859,950	...	V	i	394, 398, 437 (L.).	The standard dialect of Assamese (552).

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Assamese, Western Dialect	554	543,500	...	V	i	394, 414, 437 (L.).	
Assiringiā (1)	III	ii	265, 270, 333	A name sometimes wrongly given to Āo (166).
Assiringiā (2)	180	III	ii	193, 329	A language of the Eastern Nāgā sub-group, spoken beyond the frontier of North-East Assam.
Astōrī	393	VIII	ii	3, 150, 186	A dialect of the Dardic language Shiqā (391) spoken in the Astor Valley of Kashmir.
Asurī	22	15,025	3,099	IV	...	21, 28, 135	A dialect of Kherwārī (14), a Mundā language. It is spoken in Ranchi and Jashpur (Chota Nagpur). The Survey figures are excessive.
Asuring	III	ii	333	Another spelling of the name Assiringiā (180), <i>q.v.</i>
Āting	III	ii	68	Another name for the Ātong dialect (137) of Gārō (134), <i>q.v.</i>
Ātong, Āting, or Kuchu	137	15,000	...	III	ii	68, 85, 135 (L.)	A dialect of Gārō (134), spoken in the Garo Hills and Mymensingh.
Atsi	Another name for Szi, <i>q.v.</i> The word is also spelt Asi.
Attock Dialect	VIII	i	541, 542	A form of North-Western Lahndā (433).
Audhi	Another spelling of Awadhī (558).
Audhrī	An old name for Oriyā (502), used by the Orissa Grammarian Mārkaṇḍeya.
Audrī	Another name for Oriyā (502).
Aurang	IV	...	406	Another name for Kurukḷa (305).
Austrie Family	...	3,052,046	4,529,351	The name of the great family of languages, of which the Austro-Nesian and the Austro-Asiatic are the two sub-families. To the former belong Salōn (1) and Malay (2), and to the latter belong the Mōn-Khmēr languages including the Mōn-Khmēr (3), Palaung-Wa (4-7a), Khāsi (8-12), and Nicobar (13) groups, and also the Mundā languages (14-30). These are the only languages of this family referred to in the Survey or in the Census, but there are, of course, many others.
Austro-Asiatic Family.	Sub-...	3,052,046	4,523,790	See the preceding.
Austro-Nesian Family.	Sub-...	...	5,561	See Austrie Family.
Autkalī	Another name for Oriyā (502).
Avesta, Language of	X	...	1, 9, 333	An ancient Eranian language. Sometimes called Zend.
Awa	A dialect of Khāmī (257), a Southern Chin language. It is reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 216 people in Akyab.
Awadhī, Kōsalī, or Bais-wārī.	558	16,143,548	...	VI	...	1, 8, 30, 260 (L.)	A dialect of Eastern Hindi (557), the only language of the Mediate Branch of the Indo-Aryan languages. It is spoken in Audh, except Faizabad east of Tanda, Fatehpur, Allahabad, North Mirzapur, and Jaunpur. Also used by middle-class Musalmāns over the eastern part of the United Provinces and over West Bihar, as far east, inclusive, as Muzaffarpur. For a corrected specimen of the Awadhī of Lucknow, see Addenda Majora, pp. 231 ff. For the Awadhī of Rae Bareilly, see <i>ib.</i> , pp. 234 ff.
Awāṅkāri	443	123,901	...	VIII	i	242, 432, 449, 458, 522 (L.).	A sub-dialect of the Western form of North-Eastern (436) Lahndā (415), spoken in Kohat (North-West Frontier Province), and Jhelam (Panjab).
Awāṅkī	VIII	i	242, 449, 458	Another name for Awāṅkāri (443).
Āwi	138	20,000	...	III	ii	68	A dialect of Gārō (134).
Ayaing	A dialect of Khāmī (257), a Southern Chin language. It is reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey to be spoken by 1,000 people in Akyab.
Āyarī	IX	iii	63	Another name for the Ahīrī (679) dialect of Bhīlī (677), spoken in Cutch. Cf. Vol. VIII, Part i. p. 183.
Bachadī	A name sometimes given to Mālvi (760), <i>q.v.</i>
Badaga (1)	IV	...	401	A name sometimes used in the Tamil country for Telugu (319).
Badaga (2)	298	30,656	...	IV	...	363, 401	A dialect of Kanarese (296), spoken in the Nilgiris.
Badages	IV	...	377	An old Portuguese name for Telugu (319).

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Badak	A Gipsy dialect mentioned in the 1891 Central Provinces Census Report. Not since identified. Perhaps only another spelling of Badaga, i.e. Telugu (319).
Badakhshī	336	X	...	3, 527	A dialect of Persian (331) spoken in Badakhshan. Also much used in Kabul.
Bādāmiā	IV	...	107	Name of a sub-caste speaking Kōdā (19).
Badhāni	809	14,108	...	IX	iv	280, 326	A sub-dialect of the Garhwālī dialect (804) of Central Pahārī (784). Spoken in Garhwal.
Bad-kat	III	i	86	A corruption of 'Bod-skad' or 'the language of Tibet.' This name is sometimes used instead of 'Nyamkat,' for the Bhōtiā of Upper Kanawar (64).
Bāgarī	The same as Wāg'dī (706), <i>q.v.</i>
Bāghali or Baghlāni	IX	iv	586	A form of Haṇḍūrī (823) spoken in the Panjab State of Baghal and its vicinity.
Baghāṭī	520	22,195	...	IX	iv	374, 495, 531 (L.).	A dialect of Western Pahārī (814) spoken in Baghat (Simla Hills) and neighbourhood.
Baghēli (1). Baghōl-khaṇḍī, or Rīwāl.	559	4,612,756	...	VI	...	1, 18, 122	A dialect of Eastern Hindī (557), the only language of the Mediate Branch of the Indo-Aryan languages. It is spoken in Baghelkhand and in the south-east of the U. P.
Baghēli (2)	560	3,692,126	...	VI	...	18, 122, 260 (L.)	The standard sub-dialect of the Baghēli dialect (559) of Eastern Hindī (557). Spoken in Baghelkhand.
Baghēli (3)	623	35,000	...	IX	i	550	A sub-dialect of the Bundēli dialect (610) of Western Hindī. It is a mixed form of speech found in Chhindwara (C. P.).
Baghōlkhaṇḍī	VI	...	18	Another name for Baghēli (559).
Bāghī	IX	iv	Addenda to p. 613.	A dialect of Kōchī (828).
Baghlāni	Another name for Bāghali, <i>q.v.</i>
Bāglā	Another name for Bengali (529).
Bāglani	IX	iii	148	Another name for Nāharī (695).
Bagrāwal	VI	...	152	A form of the Jūrar sub-dialect (565) of Baghēli (559). Spoken in Banda (U. P.).
Bāgrī	739	327,359	...	IX	ii	16, 130, 147	A sub-dialect of the Mārwarī dialect (713) of Rājasthāni (712). Spoken in Bikaner (Rajputana) and S.-E. Panjab.
Bāgrī of Fazilka	644	56,000	...	IX	i	734, 740	A form of the standard (633) dialect of Pañjābī. Spoken in South Firozpur (Panjab) and neighbourhood.
Bāgrī or Vāg'dī	A name given in Gwalior to the Gipsy language of Bāgrīs, Mōghīās or Baoris, and Bēdiās. It is distinct from the Wāg'dī (706), though the name of the dialect is probably taken from it.
Bahal	IX	iv	715	A form of Sakēti (840).
Bahawalpur mixed sub-dialect.	369	145,790	...	X	...	328, 414	A form of the Eastern Dialect (365) of Balōchī (361). Spoken in the Bahawalpur State (Panjab). The Survey figures include also the speakers of Balōchī in Las Bela and Sind.
Bahāwalpurī	VIII	i	329	Another name for the Mūltāni dialect (426) of Lahndā (415) spoken in the Bahawalpur State (Panjab).
Bāhē	544	47,435	...	V	i	19, 163, 194	A sub-dialect of the Rājbangsī dialect (542) of Bengali (529). Spoken in the Darjiling Tarai (Bengal).
Bāhing	90	III	i	327	A dialect of Khambū (87), one of the Eastern Pronominalized Himalayan Tibeto-Burman Languages. Spoken in the upper valleys of Nepal.
Bahnar	II	...	1	A Mōn-Khmēr language spoken in Further India, on the left bank of the Mekong.
Bahramgala	VIII	i	Addenda to p. 506.	The name of a village south of the Pir Panjāl Pass, in which is spoken a dialect of Chibhālī (440).
Bahrūpiā	775	2,872	...	IX	iii	259, 310	A dialect of Banjārī (771). Spoken in the Panjab.
Bahurī	Reported in the Bombay Census Report for 1911 as a Gipsy language spoken by 54 people in Bijapur.

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Baigānī	577	7,100	...	VI	...	25, 174, 231, 235	A form of the Chhattisgarhī dialect (572) of Eastern Hindi (557), spoken by Baigās in Balaghat (C. P.) and the vicinity.
Baisiyā	XI	...	121, 124	A form of Naṭī (867).
Baisawāri	VI	...	9, 58, 260 (L.)	Another name for Awadhī (558). For a specimen of the Baisawāri of Rae Bareilly, see Addenda Majora, pp. 234ff.
Bajaur sub-dialect	343	X	...	39	A form of the North-Eastern dialect (338) of Paṣṭō (337).
Bākhlī	IX	iv	Addenda to p. 746.	A form of Maṇḍālī Pahāri (839).
Balabandhu	A South Indian name for Marāṭhī (455), derived from the name of the written character.
Balah	A form of Taungṭhu (36), which, according to the Burma Linguistic Survey, is spoken by 124 people in the Southern Shan State of Mawkaui.
Balai	A form of Sindhī (445), which, according to the 1891 Bombay Census Report, is spoken in Poona.
Bālāli	91	III	i	342 (Vocabulary), 350.	A dialect of Khambū (87); which is a language of the Eastern Group of the Pre-mountainized Himalayan Tibeto-Burman Branch of languages. Spoken in the Upper Valleys of Nepal.
Baldi	A name sometimes given to Banjāri (771), <i>q.v.</i>
Balanchar	Ditto.
Baljar	Ditto.
Balōchī	361	704,586	485,408	X	...	3, 4, 9, 329 (Dialects), 336 (Grammar).	A language of the Afghanistan-Baluchistan sub-group of the Eastern Iranian Languages. The Survey figures include an estimate of the number of speakers in Persian territory. Spoken in Baluchistan (British and Persian), and also in Sind and the Panjab.
Balpurī	A name mentioned in the 1891 Hyderabad Census Report as indicating a form of 'Hindi.'
Baltī	See Bhōṭiā of Baltistan.
Balūchī	X	...	327	Incorrect for Balōchī (361).
Baluchistan	See North Baluchistan.
Bama	A name for Burmese (265). This is the name by which Burmese colloquially refer to themselves. <i>Cf.</i> Mramma.
Bama-Kayin	The Burmese name for Sgaw Karen (34), <i>q.v.</i>
Bamochī	Reported in the 1921 Baroda Census Report as perhaps a mistake for Bavchī, <i>q.v.</i>
Banai	III	ii	96	Another name for the Dasgayā dialect of Kōch (145), <i>q.v.</i>
Bānāi	V	i	214	Name of a tribe speaking Haijong Bengali (547). Probably the same name as the preceding.
Banāpharī (1)	566	5,000	...	VI	...	19, 155	A sub-dialect of the Baghēli dialect (559) of Eastern Hindi (557). Spoken in Hamirpur (U. P.).
Banāpharī (2)	616	335,400	...	IX	i	87, 479, 481, 573 (L.).	A sub-dialect of the Bundēli dialect (610) of Western Hindi (581). Spoken in Bundelkhand, Baghelkhand, and Hamirpur.
Banār*ai	V	ii	264	A form of Western Bhojpuri (525) spoken in Benares.
Banaudhī	V VI	ii ...	260 116	A form of Awadhī (558) spoken in West Jaunpur (U. P.).
Banfera	III	ii	332	Another name for Banparā (175).
Bānga-bhāshā	V	i	11	Another name for Bengali (529).
Bāngalā or Bāglā	V	i	11	Ditto. See Addenda Majora, p. 221.
Bāngālī	V	i	11	Ditto. Ditto.
Bāngarū (1)	588	2,165,784	...	IX	i ii	1, 2, 66, 252, 253, 571 (L.). 147	A dialect of Western Hindi (581). Spoken in the south-east of the Panjab.
Bāngarū (2)	589	875,535	...	IX	i	66	The standard dialect of the preceding.
Bangash sub-dialect	347	X	...	56	A form of the North-Eastern dialect (338) of Paṣṭō (337). Spoken in Kohat (N.-W. Frontier Province).

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Baṅglā	V	i	11	Another name for Bengali (529). See Baṅgalā.
Bāngni	III	i	585	Another name for Daḍā (125).
Baṅgrāhi	IX	i	395	The local name for the Kanauji (604) spoken in parts of Hardoi (U. P.).
Banjārā	XI	...	121	A form of Naṭi (867).
Banjāri or Labhāni . .	771	158,500	...	IX XI	iii ...	255 2, 5	A dialect of Rājasthāni (712). Spoken, under various names, all over India, by a wandering tribe. The difference between the Survey figures and the Census is due to differences of classification.
Banjāri not of Panjab or Gujarat.	773	131,855	...	IX	iii	259, 275 (C. P.), 261 (Berar), 272 (Bombay), 285 (U. P.), 317 (L.).	A form of Banjāri (771). Cf. Labhāni of Panjab and Gujarat.
Banjōgi	227	800	3	III	iii	3, 107, 144, 161 (L.).	A language of the Central Chin sub-group of the Kuki-Chin languages. Spoken in the Chittagong Hill Tracts (Bengal).
Bānkōṭi	468	1,787	...	VII	...	61, 64, 128	A sub-dialect of the Konkan standard dialect (457) of Marāṭhi (455). It is a variety of Saṅgamēśvari (467) used by Musalmāns (Vol. VII, p. 128).
Bānlā	V	i	11	Another name for Bengali (529). See Baṅgalā.
Bannu sub-dialect . .	349	X	...	69	A form of the South-Western dialect (348) of Paṣṭō (337). Spoken by the educated in Bannu District.
Bannūchi sub-dialect .	351	X	A form of the South-Western dialect (348) of Paṣṭō (337). Spoken by the uneducated of Bannu District. It is the true local dialect.
Bānovaddi	A form of Oriyā (502) mixed with Teiṅgu (319) used by people of the Chachadi (Porojā) caste, in the Madras Presidency.
Banpa	A form of Zayein (41), q.v.
Banparā	175	1,600	...	III	ii	193, 329, 332, 243 (L.).	An Eastern Nāgā Tibeto-Burman language spoken beyond the frontier of North-East Assam. The Survey figures also include speakers of Mutoniā (176) and Mohongā (177).
Banpari	VI	...	155	Another name for Banāphari (566).
Bānswāḍi	A name sometimes given to Mālvi (760), q.v.
Banūn	Another name for Gāri, q.v.
Banyang, Banyin, or Banyok.	A form of Zayein (41), q.v., spoken in the Southern Shan State of Loi Long.
Bāori	681	43,000	...	IX XI	iii ...	5, 174, 176, 236 (L.). 2	A dialect of Bhili (677), spoken by a wandering tribe in the Panjab, Rajputana, and the U. P.
Bārā, Bodo, or Plains Kāchāri.	127	272,231	271,612	III	ii	2, 4, 5, 132, (L.), 195, (Comparative Vocabulary).	A language of the Bārā group of the Assam-Burmese branch of the Tibeto-Burman sub-family. Spoken in West Assam.
Bārā or Bodo Group	618,659	715,696	III	i ii	2, 11 2	A group of the Assam-Burmese branch of the Tibeto-Burman sub-family of the Tibeto-Chinese languages.
Bārā, Standard dialect .	128	178,320	...	III	ii	5, 132 (L.)	The standard dialect of No. 127.
Bārāvi	825	7,894	...	IX	iv	456, 549, 599	A sub-dialect of the Kiūthali dialect (821) of Western Pahāri (814). Spoken in Jubbal State and neighbourhood in the Simla Hills.
Bārdēskari	VII	...	163, 186	A name given to the Kōṅkani dialect (494) of Marāṭhi (455) spoken in Belgaum.
Bārdi Bōli	424	275,000	...	VIII	i	239, 297, 299	A sub-dialect of the standard dialect (416) of Lahndā (415). Spoken in Gujrat (Panjab).
Barēl	682	1,000	...	IX	iii	5, 69	A dialect of Bhili (677), spoken in Chhota Udaipur State.
Bargastā or Bargistā	X	...	123	Another name for Ōrmuri (360).
Barne	123	A dialect of Baghāli (559) reported in the 1921 Central India Census Report as spoken in Ajaigarh and Rewa.
Barūchki	Another name for Balōchi (361).
Barūpi	Another name for Bahrūpiā (775).

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Bashahrī	Another name for the Kōchī (328) <i>q. v.</i> of Bashahr.
Bashgali . . .	379	VIII	ii	2, 10 (L.), 29, 32, 112 (L.), 133 (Compared with Khawār).	A language of the Kāfir group of the Dardic languages. It is spoken beyond the N.-W. frontier in Kafiristan. <i>see</i> Kati.
Bashgharik	VIII	ii	507	Another name for Gārwi (408).
Bastari	VII	...	331	Another name for Hal'bi (490).
Batar	Said to be the same as Bor, <i>q. v.</i> , but I can find no authority for the name.
Baungkalone	A sub-dialect of Pwo Karen (35), reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken in the Thatōn District.
Baungshè	III	iii	55, 115	A Burmese name for Haka (220). Also used by the Burmese for all Chins who tie the hair in a knot on the front part of the head. It is a nickname of the people, and, really, has no reference to language.
Bavchi	The name of a Gipsy language reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as spoken in Rewa Kantha. According to the 1921 Baroda Census Report closely related to Māwchi (694).
Bāwariās, language of	IX	iii	176	<i>Lq.</i> Bāori (681).
Baytakammara	A name sometimes given to Telugu (319).
Bāzārī . . .	794	2,000	...	IX	iv	218	A sub-dialect of the Kumaunī dialect (785) of Central Pahārī (784). Spoken in Nainī Tal (U. P.). Also commonly used to indicate any bāzār jargon.
Bobojiyā	III	i	613	A form of Chulikātā Mishmi (126). <i>See</i> Mishmi.
Bederi	Another spelling of Vadarī (325).
Bēgamatī Urdū	IX	i	128	The form of Urdū (585) used by respectable Musalmān ladies of Lucknow City.
Beik	Another name for Merguse (272a), <i>q. v.</i>
Bēldārī . . .	855	5,140	...	XI	...	2, 5, 22.	A Gipsy language (854), spoken by a wandering 'tribe' in Rajputana (Jaisalmer), Berar, and Bombay (Thana, Satara, Kolhapur, etc.).
Bellara or Berlara	Said to be a form of Tulu (302) used in South Canara (Madras). Affiliation doubtful.
Bengali (1)	V	ii	146, 162	A name given in Hazaribagh (Bihar and Orissa) to Eastern Magahī (518).
Bengali (2) . . .	529	41,933,284	49,294,099	V	i	2, 11	A language of the Eastern group of the Outer sub-branch of the Indo-Aryan languages. Spoken in Bengal. For additional information, <i>see</i> Addenda Majora, pp. 221 ff.
Bengali, Central or Standard . . .	530	8,443,996	...	V	i	19, 37, 352 (L.)	The standard form of Bengali (529), spoken in Central Bengal.
Bengali, Eastern . . .	545	16,910,651	...	V	i	19, 201, 354 & 355 (L.)	Spoken in Eastern Bengal and South-West Assam.
Bengali, Eastern Standard . . .	546	15,999,430	...	V	i	203, 354 (L.)	The standard form of the preceding, spoken in the country round Dacca.
Bengali, Northern . . .	538	6,108,553	...	V	i	19, 119	Spoken in North Bengal.
Bengali, Northern Standard . . .	539	5,439,930	...	V	i	120, 353 (L.)	Spoken in most parts of Northern Bengal, except East Purnia.
Bengali, South-Eastern . . .	549	2,310,784	...	V	i	19, 291, 391	Spoken in South-East Bengal.
Bengali, South-Eastern Standard . . .	550	2,290,784	...	V	i	291, 355 (L.)	Spoken in South-East Bengal, except in parts of the Chittagong Hill Tracts.
Bengali South-Western . . .	537	346,502	...	V	i	19, 105	Spoken in South-Western Bengal.
Bengali, Western . . .	531	3,967,641	...	V	i	19, 69, 353 (L.)	Spoken in West Bengal.
Bengali, Western Standard . . .	532	3,888,846	...	V	i	70, 352 (L.)	Spoken in West Bengal.
Bēpārī	Another name for Baujārī (771).
Bērād	A name for Kanarese (296), used in Sholapur (Bombay).
Bērādī . . .	324	1,250	...	IV	...	577, 602	A dialect of Telugu (319) spoken in Belgaum (Bombay).

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Berar dialect . . .	476	7,677,432	...	VII	...	1, 45, 61, 217	The dialect of Marāṭhī (455) spoken in Berar. The Survey figures also include the speakers of the cognate dialects spoken in the C. P. and the Nizam's Dominions.
Bērārī	VII	...	217	Another name for the Varhādī sub-dialect (477) of the Berar dialect (476) of Marāṭhī (455). In the C. P. this name is also a synonym for Banjārī (771).
Berga Orāō	IV	...	407, 436	A form of Kurukh (305) spoken in Gangpur State.
Beriyā	XI	...	121, 132	A form of Naṭī (867).
Berlay or Berlera	Other forms of the name Bellara, <i>q.v.</i>
Bētē . . .	231	630	...	III	iii	3, 181, 191	A dialect of Hrāṅghol (229), an Old Kuki language. It is spoken in North Cachar (Assam), and is sometimes called Beteli.
Beteli	See the preceding.
Betra	A corruption of the name Bhatrī (505), <i>q.v.</i>
Bettakuruba	Another name for Kurumba (299) used in Coorg.
Betul, Mālvi of	IX	ii	288, 291	Another name for Dhōlāwārī (766).
Bglai Karen	See Bwē.
Bhābarī of Rampur . . .	795	500	...	IX	iv	108, 110	A sub-dialect of the Kumānī dialect (785) of Central Pahārī (784). It is spoken in the Rampur State (U. P.).
Bhādaurī or Tōwargarhī . . .	619	1,313,000	...	IX	i	87, 479, 531, 573 (L.).	A sub-dialect of the Bundēlī dialect (610) of Western Hindī (581). It is spoken in Agra, Etawah, and Jalaun (U. P.), and in Gwalior State.
Bhadrawāh Group . . .	846	25,517	...	IX	iv	374, 881	A group of dialects of Western Pahārī spoken in Bhadravāh (Kashmir and Jammu). The group includes Bhadravāhī (847), Bhaḷēsī (848), and Pādārī (849).
Bhadrawāhī . . .	847	20,977	...	IX	iv	881, 888 (Grammar), 915 (L.).	See the preceding. The Survey figures include also the speakers of Bhaḷēsī (848).
Bhahātī	A form of Chamṛāṭī (842) mentioned in a note on p. 268 of the Panjab Census Report for 1891. Not since identified.
Bhaḷēsī . . .	848	20,977	...	IX	iv	881, 888 (Grammar).	One of the dialects of the Bhadravāh Group (846). See above. The Survey figures include also the speakers of Bhadravāhī (847).
Bhamī	A name sometimes given to Mālvi (760), <i>q.v.</i>
Bhāmṭī . . .	856	14	...	XI	...	2, 17	A Gipsy language spoken by vagrant Bhāmṭās in the C. P.
Bhand	A Gipsy language reported in the Hyderabad Census Report for 1891.
Bhāṇḍārī . . .	464	8,663	...	VII	...	61, 63, 106	A sub-dialect of the Konkani Standard dialect (457) of Marāṭhī (455). It is spoken by Bhaṇḍārīs, or palm-juice drawers, of Kolaba (Bombay).
Bhangsālī	The language of the Bhangsāls a well-known trading caste in Cutch. Probably the same as ordinary Kachchhī (451).
Bharatpurī	A name given to the Braj Bhākhā (592) spoken in Bharatpur.
Bhariā . . .	330	330	...	IV	...	637, 640	A semi-Dravidian hybrid form of speech, spoken by Bhariā Gōṇḍs in Narsinghpur and Chhindwara (C. P.).
Bharmaurī	IX	iv	769, 792	Another name for Gādī (843), <i>q.v.</i>
Bharuchi	The form of Gujarātī (652) spoken in Broach (Bombay).
Bharudī	A name sometimes given to Nimādī (770), <i>q.v.</i>
Bhaṭṭālī . . .	651	14,000	...	IX	i	637f.	A sub-dialect of the Dōgrā dialect (647) of Pañjābī (632), spoken in Chamba State (Panjab).
Bhāṭhēlā	IX	ii	388	Another name for Anāwālā (658).
Bhāṭiā . . .	454	6,000	...	VIII	i	11, 184, 212	A sub-dialect of the Kachchhī dialect (451) of Sindhī (445), spoken by Bhāṭiās of Cutch and Kathiawar (Bombay).

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Bhatkal	The same as the Nawāit sub-dialect, which is the same as the Dāldi sub-dialect (497) of the Kōṅkanī dialect (494) of Marāṭhī (455). Nawāits are called Bhatkallis in the Madras Presidency. This is the name used in Coorg.
Bhatnēri	IX	i	734, 742, 794	An old name for Bhaṭṭiānī (642).
Bhatrī	505	17,387	...	V VII	ii ...	370, 434, 441 (L.) 330	A dialect of Oriyā (502). It is a corrupt form of speech spoken in Bastar.
Bhatrī	Said to be the name of a Gipsy language spoken in Sialkot (Panjab). Not identified.
Bhaṭṭiānī	642	116,000	...	IX	i	607, 610, 734	A sub-dialect of the standard dialect (633) of Pañjābī (632), spoken in Bikaner (Rajputana) and Ferozepore (Panjab).
Bhattū or Bḥātū	XI	...	49	Another name for the Sāsī tribe (871). It is the name used by the tribe itself.
Bhatū	The name by which the Kōlhātīs (862) call themselves.
Bhāvnagarī	IX	ii	425	Another name for Gōhilwādī (670).
Bhilālī	IX	iii	51	Another name for the Bhili (677) of Ali Rajpur and Amjhara (Gwalior), both in Central India.
Bhilārī	Another name for Bhili (677).
Bhili	677	2,691,701	1,855,617	IX	i iii	xiii 1, 12 (Grammar), 236 (L.).	A language of the Central Group of the Inner Indo-Aryan Branch. It is spoken in Gujarat, Rajputana, Central India, Khandesh, and Berar. The difference between the Survey and the Census figures is due to variations in classification. The Survey figures are probably the more accurate.
Bhili or Bhilōḍī	678	1,163,872	...	IX	iii	5, 12 (Grammar), 14, 236 (L.).	The principal dialect of Bhili (677). It is spoken in Gujarat, Rajputana, Central India, Khandesh, and Berar.
Bhili of Ali Rajpur	677	IX	iii	51	Also called Bhilālī. Spoken in Ali Rajpur State, Central India.
„ of Barwani	677	IX	iii	51	Also called Rāṭh-vī Bhilālī. Spoken in Barwani State, Central India.
„ of Basim	311	IV IX	... iii	561, 565 174	A dialect of the Dravidian Kolāmi (309), spoken in Berar.
„ of Berar	677	IX	iii	174	A form of Bhili (677). To be distinguished from Bhili of Basim (311), which is a Dravidian form of speech.
„ of Chhota Udepur	677	IX	iii	84	Spoken in Chhota Udepur State (Bombay).
„ of Dhar	677	IX	iii	42	Spoken in Dhar State, Central India.
„ of Edar	677	IX	iii	14, 236 (L.)	Spoken in Edar State (Bombay).
„ of Jhabua	677	IX	iii	49	Spoken in Jhabua State, Central India.
„ of Khandesh	677	IX	iii	151	Spoken in Khandesh (Bombay).
„ of Mahikantha	677	IX	iii	5, 11	Spoken in Mahikantha (Bombay).
„ of Mewar	677	IX	iii	21	Spoken in Mewar State, Rajputana.
„ of Nasik	677	IX	iii	145	Spoken in Nasik (Bombay).
„ of Nimar	677	IX	iii	174	Spoken in Nimar (C. P.).
„ of Panch Mahals	677	IX	iii	47	Spoken in Panch Mahals (Bombay).
„ of Rajpipla	677	IX	iii	84	Spoken in Rajpipla State (Bombay).
„ of Ratlam	677	IX	iii	35	Spoken in Ratlam State, Central India.
Bhilnī	Another name for Bhili (677).
Bhilōḍī	Another name for the Bhili dialect (678) of Bhili (677).
Bhimḍī	Reported in the 1911 Bombay Census Report as a Gipsy language spoken by 4 people in Rowakantha.
Bhisasari	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Paṣṭō (337). Not identified.
Bhoga	Another spelling of Bhuksā, q.v.
Bhōi	A form of Gōṇḍī (313) reported from Saugor (C. P.) but now probably extinct.

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Bhoi Mikir	191	10,080	...	III	ii	380, 408, 432 (L.)	A dialect of Mikir (189). It is a mongrel mixture of that language with the languages of neighbouring tribes. Spoken in the Khasi and Jaintia Hills (Assam). 'Bhoi' is the Khasi term for any subject, non-Khasi, tribe.
Bhojpurī	519	20,412,608	...	V	ii	5, 40, 186	The most westerly dialect of Bihārī (506). Spoken in Bihar and Orissa (Ranchi, Palamau, Shahabad, Saran, and Champaran) and, in the United Provinces, in East Mirzapur and, north of the Ganges, as far west as the western border of the District of Benares and a line running thence northwards through Tanda in Fyzabad.
„ Northern Standard	521	6,165,151	...	V	ii	42, 224, 328 (L.)	Spoken in Saran (Bihar and Orissa) and in Gorakhpur and Basti (U. P.).
„ Southern Standard	520	4,324,293	...	V	ii	42, 186, 327 (L.)	Spoken in Shahabad, Saran, and Palamau (Bihar and Orissa), and in Ballia and Ghazipur (U. P.).
„ Western	525	3,939,500	...	V	ii	42, 43, 248, 328 (L.)	Spoken in Azamgarh, Fyzabad, Jaunpur, Benares, Ghazipur, and Mirzapur (U. P.).
Bhonda	Reported in the 1891 Madras Census Report as the language of a sub-division of the Porojās. Probably a broken form of Oriyā (502). Cf. Parjā.
Bhooty	Incorrect for Bhōtiā (57).
Bhōpālī	A name sometimes given to Mālvi (760), <i>q. v.</i>
Bhotanta	III	i	14	An old name for Bhōtiā of Tibet (58).
Bhōtiā	57	205,508	231,885	III	i	14	The general name of the group of dialects of which Bhōtiā of Tibet or Tibetan (58) is the most important. See the following entries.
„ of Baltistan, or Balti.	59	130,678	148,366	III	i	32, 140 (L.)	Spoken in Baltistan (Kashmir). The figures also include those for Bhōtiā of Parik (60).
„ of Bhutan, or Lhoke.	69	5,079	10,526	III	i	129, 143 (L.)	Spoken in Darjiling, Sikkim, and Bhutan (Bengal).
„ of Garhwal . .	66	4,300	...	III	i	100	Spoken in Garhwal (U. P.).
„ of Kham	71	III	i	136	Spoken in Eastern Tibet, which was not subject to the operations of the Survey.
„ of Ladakh, or Ladakhī.	61	29,806	33,302	III	i	51, 140 (L.)	Spoken in Ladakh.
„ of Lahul, or Lāhulī.	62	1,579	...	III	i	69	Spoken in Lahul.
„ of Nepal	III	i	113	Another name for Sharpa Bhōtiā (67).
„ of Parik . . .	60	130,678	148,366	III	i	42, 140 (L.)	Spoken in Parik (Kashmir). The figures also include those for Bhōtiā of Baltistan (59).
„ of Sikkim or Dā-njong-kā.	68	20,000	10,046	III	i	119, 143 (L.)	Spoken in Sikkim and Darjiling (Bengal).
„ of Spiti . . .	63	3,548	...	III	i	83, 142 (L.)	Spoken in Spiti.
„ of Tehri Garhwal, or Jaḍ . . .	65	106	...	III	i	91	Spoken in Tehri Garhwal State (U. P.).
„ of Tibet, or Tibetan.	58	7,968	8,995	III	i iii	14, 72, 141 (L.) 3	Spoken in Tibet. In Vol. III, Part ii, p. 72, the colloquial form of the language is called the Central dialect of Tibet. In Part iii, p. 3, the language is compared with Burmese and Lushēi. Tibetan belongs to the Tibeto-Himalayan Branch of the Tibeto-Burman Sub-family of the Tibeto-Chinese Family of languages. According to the Linguistic Survey of Burma, speakers of Tibetan are also found in the Putao District.
„ of Upper Kana-war, or Nyamkat.	64	1,544	...	III	i	86	Spoken in Upper Kanawar (Panjab).
Bhōtiā Lama	III	i	73	A name sometimes given to Bhōtiā of Tibet, or Tibetan (58).
Bhōyari	767	11,000	...	IX	ii	53, 288, 293	A sub-dialect of the Mālvi dialect (760) of Rājasthānī (712), spoken in Chhindwara (C. P.).
Bhrāmu	109	III	i	178, 180, 399, 405	A language of the Eastern sub-group of the Pronominalized Himalayan Tibeto-Burman sub-family. Spoken in West Nepal.
Bhuanī	A name sometimes given to Nimādi (770), <i>q. v.</i>
Bhukā	IX	i	70, 319	A mongrel form of Braj Bhākhā (592) spoken in Naini Tal District (U. P.).

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Bhuliā	580	13,560	...	VI	...	25, 251, 255, 261 (L.).	A sub-dialect of the Chhattisgarhi dialect (572) of Eastern Hindi (557). Spoken in Sonpur and Patna States. It is usually written in the Oriyā character, and is hence often, but wrongly, classed as a dialect of that language.
Bhumiai	Another name for Binjhawāri (578).
Bhumij	17	79,078	137,309	IV	...	21, 28, 94	A dialect of Kherwāri (14). Spoken in Singbhum, Morbhanj, and the vicinity (Bihar and Orissa).
Bhunjiā	491	2,000	...	VII	...	2, 219, 330, 372	A sub-dialect of the Marāṭhī (455) of the C. P. (476) spoken in Raipar (C. P.).
Bhutanese or Bhutāni	A name sometimes used for Bhōṭiā of Bhutan or Lhoke (69).
Bhutuner	IX	i	734	An old name for Bhattiāni (642).
Bhuyau	IV	...	80	A language reported from Sambalpur (Bihar and Orissa). It is probably a form of Muṇḍāri (16).
Bhuyouki	A name sometimes given to Mālvi (760), <i>q. v.</i>
Bighōṭā-ki Bōli	IX	ii	44	Another name for Mēwāti (754).
Big Shan	See Tai Lōng.
Bihārī	506	37,180,782	7,331 (34,342,430)	V	i ii	2 1	A language of the Eastern Group of the Outer Sūtr Branch of the Indo-Aryan languages. Spoken in Bihar, Chota Nagpur, and (east of Mirzapur, and north of the Ganges as far as the western border of Benares District, and thence up to a line running north through Tanda in Fyzabad) the U. P. Within this area, however, high-class Musalmāns speak Urdū (585) and middle-class Musalmāns speak Awadhī (558). The principal dialects of Bihārī are Maithili (507), Magahī (516), and Bhojpuri (519). Regarding the Census figures, see No. 505.
Bihārī Hindī	VI	...	118	A name applied to the form of Awadhī (558) spoken by Musalmāns in Saran (Bihar and Orissa).
Bijāpurī	IV	...	381	A name used for the local form of Kanarese (296) spoken in Bijapur.
Bikānērī	737	543,770	...	IX	ii	4, 17, 130	A form of the Northern sub-dialect (736) of the Mārwarī dialect (713) of Rājasthāni (712), spoken in Bikaner.
Bilāspurī	IX	i	671, 677	Another name for Kahlūri (637).
Bilichi	A dialect of Mopghā or Mopwā, <i>q. v.</i> , spoken on the borders of Toungoo and Karenni Districts (Barma).
Bilōchi	X	...	327	Incorrect for Balōchi (361).
Biloz	The Tamil form of the word 'Balōchi' (361).
Biltum of Yasin	VIII	ii	551, 559	Another name for the Warshikwār dialect (852) of Burushaski (850). This is the name given by Leitner. It is spoken in Yasin.
Bilūchi	X	...	327	Incorrect for Balōchi (361).
Binghlee	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Singhalese (499). ? a misprint for 'Singhlee,' <i>i. e.</i> Singhalī.
Binjhiā	IV	...	135	Another name for Brijā (24).
Binjhawāri or Binjhawāli	578	9,662	...	VI	...	25, 234, 241	A sub-dialect of the Chhattisgarhi dialect (572) of Eastern Hindi (557). It is a jargon spoken by Binjhawārs, Bhumias and Bhunjiās, in the east of the C. P. The name is derived from 'Vindhya.'
Birahūi	IV	...	619	Another spelling of Brāhūi (328).
Biraratī Thār	The Oriyā (502) spoken by Biraratīs in the Morbhanj State.
Birhār (1)	IV	...	102	A name given to Kharjā (27) in the Jashpur State.
Birhār (2)	18	1,234	258	IV	...	21, 28, 102, 241 (L.).	A dialect of Kherwāri (14), one of the Muṇḍā languages. It is spoken in Chota Nagpur. The name means 'Jungle-man.'
Birhut	The Oriyā (502) spoken by Birhuts in the Orissa Tributary States.
Birjbāsi	Another spelling of Brijbāsi, <i>q. v.</i>
Birjiā	Another spelling of Brijā (24).

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Birōhi	IV	...	619	Another name for Brāhūi (328).
Birūhi	IV	...	619	Ditto.
Bishnupuriyā	V	i	419	Another name for Mayāng (555).
Biśsau	819	17,459	...	IX	iv	456, 493, 531 (L.)	A sub-dialect of the Sirmāri dialect (816) of Western Pabāri (814), spoken in Jubbal State, Simla Hills (Panjab).
Black Miao	Another name for Hé Miao, <i>q.v.</i>
Black Riāng, Black Yin	Other names for the Shan-Yang-Lam dialect of Yin or Riāng, <i>q.v.</i>
Blaimaw	A form of Pwo Karen (35), <i>q.v.</i>
Bodo	Another name for Bārā (127).
Bodo Group	See Bārā or Bodo Group.
Bōharī	IX	ii	436	Another name for Vhōrāsāi (672).
Boki	An unclassified language reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey to be a form of Shandu spoken by 400 people in North Arakan. Shandu is said to be probably a variety of Yindu (253). Shandu is another name for Chin (Vol. III, Part iii, pp. 55, 126). Yindu belongs to the Southern Chin Group.
Bombay Dialect	VII	...	62, 93	Another name for the Parbhī sub-dialect (458) of Konkan Standard Marāṭhī (457).
Bombay Dialect	655	IX	ii	380	A dialect of Gujarātī (652) spoken in Bombay City.
Bōnāi	Reported in the 1891 C. P. Census Report as a form of Marāṭhī (455). Not since identified.
Bondili	A Madras term for the Hindōstāni (582) spoken by the Bondili caste. To be distinguished from Bundēli (610).
Bontāwa	III	i	274	A dialect of Khambū (87). A 'Kirāntī' dialect spoken in the upper valleys of Nepal.
Bor	Said to be a form of Bārā (127). Probably merely a corruption of the word. Also called Batar, a name not elsewhere identified.
Bordnariā	III	ii	193, 334	Another name for Mohongāi (177).
Bori	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Gujarātī. Probably a corruption of Bōharī, <i>i.e.</i> , Vhōrāsāi (672).
Bor-Muthun	III	ii	333	A form of Mutoniā (176).
Brae	See Brè.
Bragitsā	Another spelling of Bargistā (360).
Brāhmaṇi	VII	...	222	A name given in Akola (Berar) to the form of the Varhādi dialect (477) of Marāṭhī (455) used by the educated.
Brāhūi	328	165,500	184,368	IV	...	286, 619, 649 (L.)	The North-Western Dravidian language. It is spoken in Kalat and Chagal (Baluchistan).
Braj Bhākhā (or Bhāshā) or Antarbēdi	592	7,864,274	...	IX	i	1, 2, 69, 571 (L.)	A dialect of Western Hindi (581) spoken in Aligarh, Muttra, Agra, Farukhabad, and vicinity (U. P.), and in Gurgaon (Panjab).
" " Standard	593, 594	4,203,469	...	IX	i	69, 70, 80 (Grammar), 271, 571 (L.)	The standard form of the preceding. Spoken in the country round Agra and Muttra.
Braj Bhākhā, North-Western	597	1,967,021	...	IX	i	69, 70, 312	Spoken in Bulandshahr, Badaun, and the Naini Tal Talai.
" " Southern	598, 599	652,003	...	IX	i	69, 70, 322	Spoken in Gurgaon and Bharatpur.
Brè	See Bwè.
Brek	41a	...	616	A dialect of Karen (31) spoken in Karenni. The language was not dealt with in this Survey. Also called Prè.
Brij	Another name for Braj Bhākhā (592).
Brijbāsi	XI	...	121, 141	A form of Naṭi (867).
Brijā or Kōrāntī	24	3,000	825	IV	...	135	A dialect of Kherwāri (14). Spoken in Palamau (Bihar and Orissa).
Brijki	Another name for Braj Bhākhā (592).

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Brinjāri	IX	iii	255	Another name for Banjāri (771).
Briori	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Balōchī (361). Not since identified. Perhaps a corruption of 'Brāhūi' (328), which language is in Baluchistan.
Broach (Eastern) dialect.	659	IX	ii	389	A dialect of Gajaratī (652), spoken in Eastern Broach.
Brōhī	Another name for Brāhūi (328).
Brōhki	IV	...	619	Ditto.
Broken dialects (Chhattisgarhi).	575	34,922	...	VI	...	222ff.	A number of corrupt forms of the Chhattisgarhi dialect (572) of Eastern Hindi (557). They are spoken in the east of the C. P. by aboriginal tribes. The group includes Sadri Korwā (576), Baigāni (577), Binjhāri (578), Kalāngā (579), and Bhuliā (580).
Broken dialects of Thana and the Konkan.	VII	...	130	These are broken forms of Marāṭhī (455) spoken in Thana and the Konkan by aboriginal tribes. They include Kātkari (471), Vārli (472), Vād'val (473), Phud'gi (474), and Sāmvedī (475).
Broken dialects of the South (Baghēli).	567	95,830	...	VI	...	174	Corrupt forms of the Baghēli dialect (559) of Eastern Hindi (557). They include Marāri (568), Pōwāri (569), and Kumbhāri (570), which are spoken by tribes in Balaghat and Bhandara (C. P.), and also Ōjhi (571) spoken in Chhindwara by a Dravidian tribe.
Broken dialects of the South (Bundēli).	See Bundēli, Broken dialects of the South.
Broken dialects of the West (Baghēli).	561	824,800	...	VI	...	132	Mixtures of the Baghēli dialect (559) of Eastern Hindi (557), and the Bundēli (610) dialect of Western Hindi (581). They are spoken in Fatehpur, Banda, and Hamirpur Districts (U. P.). They include Tirhāri (562), the so-called 'Bundēli' (563), Gahōrā (564), Jūpar (565), and the so-called 'Banāphari' (566).
Broken dialects of the East (Marāṭhī).	489	111,196	...	VII	...	330	Mixtures of Marāṭhī (455), Oriyā (502), and the Chhattisgarhi dialect (572) of Eastern Hindi (557), spoken in the country west of Orissa. They include Hal'bi (490), Bhunjiā (491), Nāharī (492), and Kamāri (493).
Brōkpā of Dāh-Hanū .	397	VIII	ii	3, 150, 208, 224 (L.)	A dialect of Shinā (391) spoken in two isolated villages in Baltistan, surrounded by speakers of a Tibeto-Burman language.
Budabudikē	A Gipsy language reported in the 1891 Mysore Census Report. Said to be a form of Marāṭhī (455) with a Dravidian element. Not since noted.
Budāli	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a local form of 'Hindi.'
Budāi	A name sometimes used for Bhōṭiā of Ladakh, or Ladakhī (61).
Bugu	See Paku.
Bunān	74	2,987	...	III	i	177, 428, 469, 533 (L.).	A Western Pronominalized Himalayan Tibeto-Burman language spoken in Banan. The Survey figures include those for Ranglōi (75).
Bundēli or Bundēlkhaṇḍī	610	6,869,201	...	IX	i	1, 2, 86, 91 (Grammar), 414, 572 (L.)	A dialect of Western Hindi (581) spoken in the Central India Agency (Bundelkhand, Bhopal, and East Gwalior), and in the adjoining Districts of the U. P. and C. P.
Bundēli, Broken dialects of the South.	620	289,672	...	IX	i	547	Broken forms of Bundēli (610) spoken by various tribes of Berar and the C. P. south of the River Narmada. They include Lōdhi (621), Chhindwara Bundēli (622), the Kōshṭi dialects (629), the Kumbhār dialects (630), and Nāgpuri Hindi (631).
Bundēli, Mixed dialects of the North-East.	615	356,600	...	IX	i	479	Forms of Bundēli mixed with Baghēli spoken in North-East Bundelkhand and the adjoining country. They include Banāphari (616), Kuṇḍri (617), and Nibhattā (618).
Bundēli, Standard .	611	3,519,729	...	IX	i	91 (Grammar), 414.	Spoken in Bundelkhand and the neighbourhood.
'Bundēli'	624	83,500	...	IX	i	550	The name locally given to the broken Bundēli spoken in Chhindwara (C. P.).
'Bundēli'	563	236,200	...	VI	...	19, 142	The name given to a mixture of Baghēli (559) and Bundēli (610) spoken in Banda District (U. P.).
Bundēlkhaṇḍī	IX	i	86, 414	Another name for Bundēli (610).

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Buner Sub-dialect	340	X	...	28	A form of the North-Eastern dialect (338) of Pashtō (337).
Burdi	Reported in the 1891 C. P. Census Report as a form of Marāṭhī (455). Not since identified.
Bargaṇḍī	292	265	...	IV XI	...	299, 343 1	A dialect of Tamil (285) spoken by a vagrant tribe in Nimar (C. P.), and Indore and Bhopal (Central India).
Burma Group	...	62,652	9,335,595	III	i iii	2 379	A group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. Nearly all the languages of this group belong to Burma, which was not subject to the operations of this Survey.
Burmese	265	...	8,423,256	III	iii	3 (compared with Tibetan and Lushēi), 379.	A language of the Burma Group of Tibeto-Burman languages. It is reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken generally over nearly the whole of Burma by 7,320,642 people. Burma was not subject to the operations of the Linguistic Survey of India.
Burmese-Shan	The same as Shān-Bama, <i>q. v.</i>
Burushaskī or Khajana	850, 851	VIII	ii	6, 551	An unclassified language spoken in Hunza-Nagar and Yasin.
Butkul	An incorrect spelling of Bhatkul, <i>q. v.</i>
Bwo	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a dialect of Lai (219) spoken in the Chin Hills. The number of speakers is not stated.
Bwè	32	...	10,637	A Karen dialect spoken in the Karenni and Loungoo Districts and Southern Shan States (Burma). Also called Brè, Bgtai, and Mauō.
Bwolkwa	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey to be spoken by 5,600 people (including speakers of Ngorn and Tapong) in the Chin Hills. Classified in the Census as Kuki-Chin.
Byāngsī	81	1,585	...	III	i	177, 423, 535 (L.).	A Western Prorominalized Tibeto-Burman language spoken in Almora (U. P.).
Canarese	Another spelling of Kanarese (296), <i>q. v.</i>
Carnatic	Ditto ditto.
Central Chia Sub-Group	...	107,604	141,668	III	iii	3, 8, 107	A sub-group of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages.
Central Group	...	81,665,821	137,249,408	IX	i	xiii	A group of the Inner Sub-Branch of the Indo-Aryan languages.
Central Nāgā Sub-Group	...	38,000	48,554	III	ii	193, 265	A sub-group of the Nāgā Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages.
Central Pahārī	784	1,107,604	3,853	IX	i iv	xiii 1, 101	A language of the Pahārī Group of the Inner Sub-Branch of the Indo-Aryan languages. It is spoken in Almora and Garhwal (U. P.).
Central Provinces Dialect	476	7,677,432	...	VII	...	1, 217	The dialect of Marāṭhī (455) spoken in the C. P. The Survey figures include those for the similar dialects of Berar and the Nizam's Dominions.
Central Tibetan	III	i	72	A general name given to the dialects of Tibetan spoken between Lahul and Khams. The Central Dialect of Tibetan is the colloquial form of standard Bhōṭiā of Tibet or Tibetan (58).
Chā	III	iii	3	Another spelling of Chaw. See Kyau (241).
Chachadi	Said to be a form of Oriyā (502) mixed with Telugu (319) spoken by members of the Chachadi caste (Madras Presidency).
Chairel	280	III	iii	43, 45 (L.).	A Lūi (278) language. A Tibeto-Burman language of which the exact grouping is at present doubtful. Spoken in Manipur (Assam-Burmese Frontier). It differs considerably from the other Lūi languages.
Chāskmā	551	20,000	...	V	i	19, 291, 321, 355 (L.).	A sub-dialect of South-Eastern (549) Bengali (529). It is spoken in the Chittagong Hill Tracts (Bengal).
Chakrimā	...	8,510	...	III	ii	205	One of the dialects of Angāmi Nāgā (154). It is spoken in the Naga Hills (Assam). It includes three sub-dialects,—Dzanā (156), Kehenā (157), and Nāli or Mimā (158).
Chakromā	III	ii	205	A form of the Tengimā dialect (155) of Angāmi Nāgā (154), spoken in the Naga Hills (Assam).

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Chālaya	The same as Malayālam (293). A caste-name in Madras.
Chalgarī	X	...	112	Another name for Tarinō (359), <i>q.v.</i>
Chamarwā	IX	i	67	A name given to the Bāngarū (588) spoken by the rural Chamārs of Delhi.
Chambā Group	841	109,286	...	IX	iv	374	A group of dialects of Western Pahārī (814) spoken in Chamba State (Panjab). It includes Chamāli (842), Gādī or Bharmaurī (843), Churābī (844), and Paṅgwāli (845).
Chamba Lāhulī	73	1,387	...	III	i	177, 461, 533 (L.).	A Western Pronominalized Himalayan Tibeto-Burman language spoken in Chamba State (Panjab).
Chambāli	The same as Chamāli (842).
Chamāli	842	63,338	...	IX	iv	769, 772 (Grammar), 862 (L.).	A dialect of Western Pahārī (814). It is a member of the Chambā Group (841), and is spoken in Chamba State (Panjab).
Chāmliṅ	III	i	363	Another name for the Rōdōṅ dialect (99).
Chāmpā	A form of the Bhōtiā of Ladakh (61), spoken in Ladakh by the nomad tribe called Champa.
Champhang (?)	Said to be a Kuki-Chin language spoken in Manipur (Assam-Burmese Frontier). I have failed to trace it.
Chamṭī	57	A Bhil dialect reported in the 1921 Central India Census Report as spoken in Jhabua and Alirajpur.
Chānar	The same as Kanarese (296). A Madras caste-name.
Chanāwan	Another name for Chināwārī (421).
Chandārī	VII	...	331	A form of Hal'bi (490).
Chang	The same as Achang, the Chinese name for Maingtha (260), <i>q.v.</i>
Chāṅg or Mojuṅ	179	III	ii	193, 329, 333, 344 (L.).	An Eastern Nāgā language of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman Sub-Family. It is spoken beyond the Frontier of North-East Assam. A corrected List of Words will be found in Addenda Majora, pp. 211 ff.
Chāṅglō	A dialect of Bhōtiā (57) spoken in the Eastern Himalaya.
Changsen	III	iii	59	A form of Thādo (207).
Chāraṇī	683	1,200	...	IX XI	iii	5, 61 2	A dialect of Bhili (677) spoken by wandering Chāraṇs in Panch Mahals and Thana (Bombay).
Charōtārī	661	IX	ii	394, 460 (L.)	A dialect of Gujarātī (652) spoken round Mahikantha, Cambay, and Kaira (Bombay).
Chatgāiyā	V	i	291	Another name for South-Eastern Bengali (549).
Chatrārī	Another spelling of the word Chitrālī, <i>i.e.</i> Khōwār, (390).
Chau	Another spelling of Chaw, <i>q.v.</i>
Chaubhāsi	The same as Rau-Chaubhāsi (789), <i>q.v.</i>
Chaudāṅsi	80	1,485	...	III	i	117, 428, 503, 535 (L.).	A Western Pronominalized Himalayan Tibeto-Burman language spoken in Chaudāṅs Patti of Almora (U. P.).
Chaugarkhiyā	797	37,210	...	IX	iv	110, 227	A sub-dialect of the Kumaoni dialect (785) of the Central Pahārī language (784). It is spoken in Almora (U. P.).
Chaunggyi Chin	2596	...	666	A Kuki-Chin language spoken in Akyab.
Chaungtha	271	...	9,052	A language of the Burma Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It is spoken in Burma, which was not subject to the operations of the Linguistic Survey of India. According to the Burma Linguistic Survey, it is spoken by 64,531 people in Akyab and Northern Arakan. It is a variety of Arakanese (266).
Chaurāsyā	103	III	i	343 (Vocabulary), 369.	A dialect of Khambū (87), spoken in Nepal.
Chaurāsi-kī Bōli	IV	...	488	A name used in Mandla (C. P.) for Gōṇḍī (313).
Chaurāsi	745	182,133	...	IX	i	31, 183	A sub-dialect of the Central Eastern dialect (740) of Rājasthānī (712). Spoken in Jaipur State.
Chaw	Another name for Kyan (241).

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Chenchu or Chontzu	The same as Telugu (319). A fancy name. See Madras Census Report for 1891, p. 191.
Chépāng . . .	107	III	i	80, 393, 402	An Eastern Pronominalized Himalayan Tibeto-Burman language spoken in the central hills of Nepal.
Chhachhi . . .	346	X	...	51	A sub-dialect of the North-Eastern dialect (338) of Pashtō (337), spoken in Attock District (Panjab).
Chhakātiyā . . .	792	25,800	...	IX	iv	218	A sub-dialect of the Kumaunī dialect (785) of the Central Pahārī language (784). It is spoken in Naini Tal (U. P.).
Chhattisgarhi, Lariā, or Khaltāhi.	572	3,755,343	...	VI	...	1, 24	A dialect of Eastern Hindī (557) spoken in the east of the C. P. and the neighbourhood. For revised specimens of the Chhattisgarhi of Raipur and of Bilaspur, see Addenda Majora, pp. 236 ff.
Chhattisgarhi, Lariā, or Khaltāhi, Standard.	573	3,335,875	...	VI	...	26 (Grammar), 184, 261 (L.).	The standard form of the preceding. It is spoken in Chhattisgarh and the neighbourhood.
Chhibhālī	VIII	i	505	Incorrect for Chhibhālī.
Chhikā-chhikī . . .	513	1,719,781	...	V	ii	13, 95, 326 (L.)	A sub-dialect of the Maithilī dialect (507) of Bihārī (506), spoken in South-East Monghyr and South Bhagalpur (Bihar and Orissa).
Chhindwara sub-dialects .	622	145,500	...	IX	i	547, 550	A group of sub-dialects of the Bundelī dialect (610) of Western Hindī (551), spoken in Chhindwara (C. P.). It includes 'Baghelī' (623), 'Bundelī' (624), Pōwārī (625), Gāolī (626), Rāghobansī (627), and Kirārī (628).
Chhingtāng . . .	96	III	i	342 (Vocabulary), 358.	A dialect of Khambū (57) spoken in the upper valleys of Nepal.
Chhotā Baughālī . . .	838	150,000	...	IX	iv	715	A sub-dialect of the Mandī Group (836) of sub-dialects of Western Pahārī (814). It is spoken in the North of Mandī State (Panjab). The Survey figures include those for Mandāli (837).
Chibhālī . . .	440	521,338	...	VIII	i	242, 432, 495, 505, 523 (L.).	A dialect of Lahndā (415), spoken in that part of the outer hill region of Kashmir which lies between the Chināb and the Jehlam rivers. The name is often wrongly spelt Chhibhālī, see Vol. VIII, Pt. i, p. 505.
Chibok . . .	139	1,500	...	III	ii	68	A dialect of Gārō (134), spoken in the Garo Hills.
Chilāsī . . .	394	VIII	ii	3, 150, 224 (L.)	A dialect of Shīnā (391), spoken in the Indus Valley from near Astor to Tangir and Saziu.
Chilis . . .	410	VIII	ii	3, 507, 514, 531 (L.).	A sub-dialect of the Tōrwālī dialect (409) of Kohistānī (407), spoken in the Swat Kohistān.
Chin, Central	See Central Chin.
Chin Languages	III	iii	2, 55	
Chin, Northern	See Northern Chin.
Chin, Southern	See Southern Chin.
Chināwārī . . .	421	73,479	...	VIII	i	239, 251, 280	A sub-dialect of the Standard dialect (416) of Lahndā (415). It is spoken in the Jhang District (Panjab) on the bank of the River Chināb. Cf. Chināwārī.
Chinbōk . . .	252	III	iii	3, 329, 360 (L.)	A Southern Chin language of the Kuki-Chin group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It is spoken in Burma, and is reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 11,888 people in Pakōkku.
Chintōn . . .	254	...	683	III	iii	3, 329	A Southern Chin language of the Kuki-Chin group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. In the Burma Linguistic Survey it is reported to be spoken by 6,934 people in Pakōkku.
Chinese-Shān	See Shān-Chinese.
Chingmagna or Tamu . .	174	5,000	...	III	ii	193, 329, 331, 342 (L.).	An Eastern Nāgā language of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It is spoken in Assam, in the North-East Naga Hills and beyond the Dikku. The Survey figures also include the figures for the speakers of Angwāngu (173).
Ching-pā	III	ii	499, 505	Another spelling of Chingpaw (204).
Chingpaw . . .	204	...	150,896	A general name for the Kachin (203) spoken in Upper Burma. The Census figures include also the speakers of Singphō (205) and other Kachin dialects. According to the Burma Linguistic Survey, the total number of speakers of all kinds of Kachin in Burma was 142,785.
Chinhāwārī	VIII	i	251, 323	A local name for a form of Multānī (427) spoken in Muzaffargarh (Panjab) on the banks of the River Chināb. Cf. Chināwārī.

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Chiamè	250	III	iii	3	A Southern Chin language of the Kuki-Chin group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. Spoken in Pakókku. Also called Rawvan, <i>q.v.</i>
Chiru	238	750	1,577	III	iii	3, 181, 226, 293 (L.).	An Old Kuki language of the Kuki-Chin group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It is spoken in Manipur (Assam-Burmese Frontier). The Survey figures are only a rough estimate.
Chitkhuli	III	i	Addenda to p. 431	A dialect of Kanauri (77).
Chitōḍī	A mixture of Gujarātī (652) and Marāṭhī (455) reported in 1921 Bombay Census Report as spoken by Chitōḍ Baniyās in Khāndēsh. Probably a form of Khāndēśī (767).
Chitpāvanī	498	69,000	...	VII	...	165, 210, 392 (L.).	A sub-dialect of the Kōṅkaṇī dialect (494) of Marāṭhī (455), spoken by Chitpāwan Brāhmins of Ratnagiri (Bombay).
Chitrālī or Chatrālī	VIII	ii	2, 133	Another name for Khōwār (390).
Chōdhārī	684	121,258	...	IX	iii	6, 108, 112	A dialect of Bhīlī (677), spoken in Surat and Nawsari of Baroda (Bombay).
Chona	A form of Bhōṭiā of Tibet (58) spoken in Central Tibet.
Chongloi	III	iii	59	A form of Thādo (207).
Chontzu	See Chenchu.
Chōriwālī	Incorrect for Chūrūwālī, <i>q.v.</i>
Chote	243	...	264	III	iii	181, 262	Said to be an Old Kuki language of the Kuki-Chin group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, but no certain information has been obtained regarding it. It is spoken in Manipur (Assam-Burmese Frontier).
Chūhrā	XI	...	3, 5	A Gipsy tribe. Its language is not described in the Survey, no particulars having been received.
Chulikātā	III	i	614, 623 (L.)	A form of Mishmi (126).
Chungli or Zungi	167	9,300	...	III	ii	265, 269, 281, 292 (L.).	A dialect of Āo Nāgā (166), spoken in the Naga Hills (Assam).
Churāhī	844	27,301	...	IX	iv	769, 817 (Grammar), 863 (L.).	One of the Chambā Group (841) of dialects of Western Pahārī (814), spoken in Chamba State (Panjab).
Chūrūwālī	IX	ii	18	A corrupt form of Bikānēri (737) spoken in Farukhabad (U. P.).
Chutiya	152	304	4,113	III	ii	2, 4, 118, 137 (L.).	A language of the Bārā Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. Spoken in Sibsagar and Lakhimpur (Assam). The Survey estimate of the number of speakers is probably too small.
Chūtiyā	III	i	584	A form of Miri (124).
Chyang	The same as Khyang (256), <i>q.v.</i>
Coilong	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Kōṅkaṇī (494). Compare Koilong, which in the same Report is stated to be a form of Malayālam (293).
Coorgi	Another name for Koḍagu (301).
Costa	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Kōṅkaṇī (494).
Cutch, Gujarātī of	IX	ii	424	
Cutchī	Incorrect for Kachchhi (451), <i>q.v.</i>
Da-Ang	A form of Palaung (4), reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken in the Ruby Mines District.
Dadārī	Reported in the 1891 N.-W. P. Census Report as a form of Jaipuri (741). Not since identified.
Dadhī, Daḥī, or Dahi	IX	iv	19, 82 (L.)	A corrupt form of Khas-kurā, Eastern Pahārī, or Naipālī (781), spoken in the Nepal Tarai.
Da-Eng	A form of Palaung (4), reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken in the Ruby Mines District.
Daḍā	125	990	959	III	i	568, 584, 622 (L.).	A language of the North Assam Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in North-East Assam, mainly outside settled British territory.

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Dāh-Hanū	VIII	ii	3, 150, 208, 224 (L.).	See Brōkpā of Dāh-Hanū (397).
Dahī	IX	iv	19, 82 (L.).	See Daḥī.
Daingnet	282	...	4,915	A language of the Sak (Lūi) Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Barman languages, reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 4,463 people in Akyab. The name is there spelt Daignet.
Dakhinī	Literally, 'the language of the South.' Hence (1) applied to Dakhinī Hindōstānī (587); (2) applied to Oriyā (502) by the natives of Chota Nagpur; (3) under the form of Dakhnī or Dakhnandī applied to Jaipuri (726) by inhabitants of the South-Eastern Panjab; (4) applied to the Marāṭhī of the Deccan (456).
Dakhinī Hindōstānī or Musalmānī.	587	3,654,172	...	IX	i	1, 44, 45, 58, 59 (Grammar), 186 (of Bombay), 203 (of Madras), 570 (L.).	A sub-dialect of Hindōstānī (582) spoken in the Deccan.
Dakhinī Marāṭhī	VII	...	33	Another name for Standard, or Dēśī, Marāṭhī (456). It is called Dakh'nī in the C. P. (Vol. VII, p. 248).
Dakhnī or Dakhnandī	See Dakhinī.
Dakin-sā-rao	The Dīmā-sā (131) name for Kuki generally. Used in North Cachar (Assam).
Dalāl	XI	...	3	A Gipsy tribe. Their language is not described in the Survey.
Dalāls of Delhi	XI	...	8	These have a special trade argot.
Dāldī	497	23,500	...	VII	...	165, 200	A sub-dialect of Kōṅkaṇī (494). It is the dialect of the Nawāits of Janjira, Ratnagiri, and Kanara (Bombay).
Daleng	A form of Mōn (3), <i>q.v.</i>
Dālu	140	500	...	III	ii	68	A dialect of Gārō (134) spoken in the Garo Hills (Assam).
				V	i	214	Also the name of a Gārō sept which speaks Haijong Bengali (547) in the country at the foot of the Garo Hills, in Mymensingh (Bengal) and Sylhet (Assam).
Damaṇī	VII	...	61, 62, 93	Another name for the Par'bhī sub-dialect (458) of Standard Marāṭhī (456), spoken round Daman (Bombay).
Dāmbūk	III	i	584	A form of Miri (124).
Dami	Reported in the 1891 Central Provinces Census Report as a form of Oriyā. Not since identified.
Danaw	7	...	1,433	A language of the Palaung-Wa group of the Mōn-Khmēr Branch of the Austro-Asiatic languages. Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 1,803 people in the Southern Shan States. It is not dealt with in the Linguistic Survey of India. It is closely related to Wa (5). The speakers call themselves Ganaw.
Dāngbhāṅg	603	80,363	...	IX	i	70, 329, 353, 365 (L.).	A sub-dialect of the Braj Bhākhā dialect (592) of Western Hindī (581). It is spoken in Jaipur State.
Dāngēsā	See Dāngī.
Dāngī (1)	Literally, the language of the Dāng, or 'Broken Hill Country.' Hence applied (1) to a form (600) of Western Hindī (581), (2) to the language of the tribes inhabiting the Dāngs of Bombay (710), and (3) to the Mālvi spoken in the Dāngs of Gwalior and Kota. The last does not differ from ordinary Mālvi (760), is also called Dāngihai, Dāngēsā, or Dhandēri, and is spoken by 101,000 people (Vol. IX, Pt. ii, p. 258).
Dāngī (2) or Kā-kachhū-kī Bōlī.	600	504,436	...	IX	i	70, 71, 329, 332, 364 (L.).	A sub-dialect of the Braj Bhākhā dialect (592) of Western Hindī (581). It is spoken in Jaipur State.
Dāngī (3)	710	31,700	...	IX	iii	203, 224	A dialect of Khāndēśī (707), spoken in the Dāngs of Bombay Presidency.
Dāngihai	See Dāngī (1).
Dā-njong-kā	Another name for Bhōṭiā of Sikkim (68).
Dānpuriyā	799	23,851	...	IX	iv	110, 234	A sub-dialect of the Kumānī dialect (785) of Central Pahārī (784). Spoken in Almora (U. P.).

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Danu	239	...	72,955	III	iii	381	A dialect of Burmese (265). It is spoken in Burma, which was not subject to the operations of this Survey. In the Burma Linguistic Survey, it is reported to be spoken by 76,057 people in the Shan States and neighbouring Districts.
Dapsal	An unclassified language, reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 700 people in the Chin Hills.
Darāng	A dialect of Palaung (4), <i>q.v.</i> Spoken in the Kēng-tūng Southern Shan State.
Dard Group	1,195,902	1,304,198	VIII	ii	1, 2, 3, 4, 133 (compared with Khōwār), 149.	A group of languages of the Dardic or Pisācha Branch of the Aryan Sub-Family of the Indo-European languages. Spoken in Kashmir and the country to the north and east.
Dardic or Pisācha Branch	...	1,195,902	1,304,319	VIII	ii	2	A branch of the Aryan Sub-Family of the Indo-European languages. We have complete figures for only one language—Kāshmiri—of this branch. Compared with Sindhi (Vol. VIII, Pt. i, p. 6), with Lahndā (<i>Ib.</i> , p. 234). Connected with Khētrāni (<i>Ib.</i> , p. 372). Spoken in Dardistan.
Darhī, Daḡhī, or Dahī	IX	iv	19, 82 (L.)	A corrupt form of Khas-kurā, Eastern Pahārī, or Naipālī (781), spoken in the Nepal Tarai.
Daringabaddi	Said to be a form of Kui (308). I have not identified it.
Darjī	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Urdū (585) spoken in the Bombay Presidency. Apparently the language of tailors (<i>Darzi</i>), who are generally Musalmāns and therefore speak Urdū.
Daruiyā	79	1,761	7	III	i	177, 428, 490, 534 (L.).	A Western Pronominalized Himalayan language of the Tibeto-Himalayan Branch of the Tibeto-Burman Sub-Family. It is spoken in the Darma Patti of the Almora District (U. P.).
Daru	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey to be a form of Nung or Khanung (277a) spoken by 2,739 people in the Putao District.
Dāsari	327	IV	...	577, 599	A dialect of Telugu (319), spoken in Belgaum (Bombay) by a wandering tribe of beggars, some of whom speak Telugu, and some Kanarese (296). The number of speakers is unknown. In the 1891 Bombay Census Report, Dāsari is said to be a form of Kanarese.
Dasauliyā	808	17,022	...	IX	iv	280, 330	A sub-dialect of the Garhwālī dialect (804) of Central Pahārī (784). It is spoken in Garhwal (U. P.).
Dasgayā or Banai	145	1,100	...	III	ii	96	A dialect of Kōch (142), spoken in the Garo Hills (Assam).
Dawāusā	Another name for Angāmi (154).
Da-wē	Another name for Tavoyan (270), <i>q.v.</i>
Daye	48	...	746	A Tai language reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey to be spoken by 704 people in the Southern Shan States.
Deccani	Incorrect spelling for Dakhinī, <i>q.v.</i>
Dēhāwālī	685	45,000	...	IX	iii	6, 158	A dialect of Bhīlī (677), spoken in the Satpuras of Khandesh (Bombay). <i>Cf.</i> Mēwās and Vasava.
Dēhgānī	VIII	ii	2, 89	Another name for Pashai (385).
Dēhwārī	333	7,579	6,268	X	...	452	A dialect of Persian (331) spoken in Baluchistan.
Deka Haimong	III	ii	265, 270	A name sometimes given to Āo (166).
Dēnwār or Dōnwār	IX	iv	19, 83 (L.)	A corrupt form of Khas-kurā, Eastern Pahārī, or Naipālī (781) spoken in the Nepal Tarai.
Dēorāwāṭī	730	86,000	...	IX	ii	17, 87, 105	A sub-dialect of the Mārwarī dialect (713) of Rājasthānī (712), spoken in Marwar.
Deori or Deori Chutiya	III	ii	118	Another name for Chutiya (152), <i>q.v.</i>
Dera Ghazi Khan sub-dialect.	366	125,510	...	X	...	387	A form of the Eastern dialect (365) of Balōchī (361), spoken in Dera Ghazi Khan (Panjab). The figures also include those for speakers of the dialect in Jacobabad (Sind).
Dērāwāl	VIII	i	240, 241, 333, 381, 382, 398.	A local name for the Lahndā (415) spoken in Dera Ghazi Khan (Panjab) and Dera Ismail Khan (North-West Frontier Province).

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Dermuba	A dialect of Mopghā or Mopwā, <i>q.v.</i> Spoken on the borders of Toungoo and Karenni Districts (Burma).
Dēsari	IX	i	67	Another name for Hariāni or Dēsālī (591).
Desharuk	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Marāṭhī (455).
Dēsi	VII	...	32	A name given to the standard dialect (456) of Marāṭhī (455).
Dēsālī	IX	i	67	Another name for Hariāni (591), <i>q.v.</i>
Dēvanāgarī	The name of the well-known written character. Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as the name of a form of 'Hindi.'
Devanaga. See <i>Srināṭhā</i>							
Dhadbar	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of 'Hindi.'
Dhalō	IV	...	107	The name of a sub-caste speaking Kōḍā (19).
Dhanauchī	Reported in the 1921 Punjab Census Report as a form of Lahndā (415). Probably the same as Dhanni, <i>q.v.</i>
Dhan*garī (1)	479	1,800	...	VII	...	318, 248, 370	A sub-dialect of the Marāṭhī (455) of the Central Provinces (476), spoken in Chhindwara (C. P.).
Dhan*garī (2)	463	1,750	...	VII	...	61, 63, 97	A sub-dialect of the Konkan Standard dialect (457) of Marāṭhī (455), spoken in Thana and Belgaum (Bombay).
Dhaṇḍērī	See Dāngī (1).
Dhaṇḍār	IV	...	108, 241 (L.)	A form of Kōḍā (19).
Dhan-garī	Another spelling of Dhan*garī, 1 & 2, <i>q.v.</i>
Dhāṅgarī	IV	...	407, 430, 434, 435, 445.	Another name for Kurukh (305), <i>q.v.</i>
Dhankī	A Bhil language reported in the 1921 Bombay Census Report as spoken by Dhānkars in Khandesh.
Dhannī	VIII	i	241, 449, 541, 542, 576 (L.)	A form of North-Western Lahndā (433) spoken in Jhelum.
Dhanwārī	IV	...	407, 410, 434	Another name for Kurukh (305), <i>q.v.</i>
Dhar	IX	iv	715	A form of Sukēti (840).
Dharēl	Said to be a form of Bārā (127). It has not been identified.
Dhārthī	817	82,739	...	IX	iv	456, 458 (Grammar), 530 (L.)	A sub-dialect of the Sirmāuri dialect (816) of Western Pahārī (814), spoken in the Sirmāur State (Panjab) and neighbourhood.
Dhaṭ*ki	735	72,789	...	IX	ii	16, 109, 132	A sub-dialect of the Mārwarī dialect (713) of Rājasthāni (712), spoken on the border between Rājputana and Sind, in the Jaisalmir State and in the Thar and Parkar District. It is practically the same as Dhātki, <i>q.v.</i>
Dhātki	VIII	i	142	Another name for the Tharēli dialect (448) of Sindhi (445). See the preceding.
Dhēḍ Gujarī	IX	iii	203	Another name for Khāndēsi (707). <i>Dhēḍ</i> means any corrupt dialect.
Dhēḍhi	The language of the Dhēḍh tribe of Chamārs in the Panjab. Mentioned in the 1891 Panjab Census Report. Not since identified.
Dhēḍi (? Dhēḍi)	VII	...	300	Another name for Māhārī (485).
Dhekerī	V	i	414	Another name for Western Assamese (554).
Dhekra	Said to be a form of Bārā (127). I have not identified it. The name is probably only a corrupt form of the preceding, as the language is spoken in Western Assam.
Dhēri or Māhārī	A corrupt form of Marāṭhī (455) used by Dhērs and Māhārī in Chanda, Chhindwara, and Bastar (C. P.).
Dhimāl	83	...	505	III	i	178, 274, 277	An Eastern Pronominalized Himalayan Tibeto-Burman language spoken in Sikkim.
Dhōḍiā	686	60,000	...	IX	iii	6, 108, 124	A dialect of Bhili (677) spoken in Surat and Thana (Bombay).
Dhōḍiā-Naiki	IX	iii	124	Another name for Dhōḍiā (686).
Dhōlēwārī	766	119,000	...	IX	ii	288, 291	A sub-dialect of the Mālvi dialect (760) of Rājasthāni (712).

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Dhōlpurī	A name given to the Braj Bhākhā (592) spoken in Dhōlpur (Rajputana).
Dhombary	A Gipsy language reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as spoken in Satara. The same as Dōmbārī, <i>q.v.</i>
Dhōṇḍī	Another name for Dhōḍiā (686).
Dhōri	Reported in 1921 Bombay Census Report as a Bhil dialect spoken in Rewakanthū. Perhaps the same as Dhōḍiā (686).
Dhundhārī	IX	ii	32, 200	Another name for Jaipurī (741).
Dhūṇḍī . . .	439	87,777	...	VIII	i	242, 432, 495, 523 (L.).	A dialect of Lahundā (415) spoken in the Hazara District (Panjab). The figures also include those for the Pahārī Lahundā (438) spoken in the hills north of Rawalpindi.
Didāyī	The same as Parjī (318). The Didāyīs form a sub-division of the Porojas (Madras).
Digāru	III	i	616, 623 (L.).	A form of Mishni (126).
Dikkū Kāji	V	ii	277	A Muṇḍā name for Nagpurī (526).
Dimā-sā or Hills Kāchārī	131	18,681	11,040	III	ii	2, 4, 5, 56, 132 (L.).	A language of the Bārā Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. Spoken in North Cachar and Nowgong (Assam).
Dimā-sā, Standard Dialect	132	15,931	...	III	ii	56, 132 (L.).	The standard form of the preceding.
Ḍiṅgaḷ	IX	ii	19	The name for Mārwarī (713) when used as a literary dialect. <i>Cf.</i> Piṅgaḷ.
Ḍirī . . .	338	VIII	ii	2	A Dardic language spoken in the country round Ḍir in Dardistan.
Dōābī	The language spoken in a <i>Dōāb</i> . Hence, (1) Dōābī Pañjābī (see the next), and (2) the language of the upper Gangetic Doab, also known as Pachhārī (<i>q.v.</i>).
Dōābī Pañjābī . . .	636	2,051,448	...	IX	i	671	A sub-dialect of Standard Pañjābī (633) spoken in the Jullundur Doab (Panjab).
Doāniyā	III	ii	499	Another name for Singpho (205). Properly, the language of one who has a foreign speech (<i>dōān</i>).
Dōḍā Sirājī	See Sirājī of Dōḷā (404).
Dōḍī	Another name for Sirājī of Dōḍā (404), <i>q.v.</i>
Dōḍrā Kuārī	IX	iv	Addenda to p. 613	A dialect of Kōchī in (828).
Dōgrā or Dōgrī . . .	647	1,229,227	418,678	IX	i	607, 610, 637, 643 (G r a m m a r), 757, 807 (L.).	A dialect of Pañjābī spoken in Jammu State (Panjab) and neighbourhood.
Dōgrā, Standard . . .	648	568,727	...	IX	i	61	The Standard sub-dialect of the Dōgrā dialect (647) of Pañjābī (632). Spoken in Jammu State and neighbourhood.
Doharahu	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Marāṭhī (455) spoken in Khandesh.
Doktol	A form of Bhōṭiā of Tibet (58) spoken in Central Tibet.
Dōm . . .	857	13,500	...	XI	...	2, 4, 5, 143	A Gipsy language (854). Unclassed.
Dōmbārī or Dōmbhārī	XI	...	71	Another name for Kōlhāṭī (862).
Dombo	The Oṛiyā (502) spoken by the Dombo Pariahs of the Vizagapatam Hills (Madras).
Dommarā	The same as Telugu (319). A Madras caste-name.
Dōmrā	A Gipsy language spoken by Dōms in Western Bihar and Eastern U. P. It is a slang form of Bhojpurī (519). <i>Cf.</i> Dōm (857).
Dōnwār or Dēnwār	IX	iv	19, 83 (L.)	A corrupt form of Khas-kurā or Naipālī (781) spoken in the Nepal Tarai.
Dora	The same as Koṇḍadora,—a form of Kui (308).
Do-sandhi	IX	iv	332	Another name for Māñih-Kumaiyā (810).
Drās Dialect . . .	396	VIII	ii	3, 150, 186, 224 (L.).	A dialect of Shīṇā (391), spoken in Drās (Kashmir).
Dravid	A name sometimes used for Tamil (285).
Draviḍa Group	80,940,550	37,285,594	IV	...	284	One of the two main groups of the Dravidian languages. <i>Cf.</i> Andhra Group.

APPENDIX III (Index of Language-Names)—

Add the following entry :—

Devanga, a dialect of Kanarese (296) spoken by the caste of the same name in the South Kanara District (Madras). The Devangas are a caste of weavers scattered over the Madras Presidency. Some of them speak Kanarese and others Telugu (319).

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Dravidian Family	...	58,073,261	64,128,052	IV	...	2 (compared with Mandā), 277, 286 (general characteristics).	One of the great families of speech spoken in India, mainly in the south, but also in the centre, in Bihār and Orissa, and, far to the west, in Baluchistan.
Dubli	687	14,050	...	IX	iii	6	A dialect of Bhili (677) spoken by Dubias in Thana and Jawhar (Bombay).
Dūgar-wāra	601	108,766	...	IX	i	70, 329, 363, 365 (L.).	A sub-dialect of the Braj Bhākhā dialect (592) of Western Hindi (581), spoken in Jaipur State. It is also called Raikārā-tūkārā.
Dukpa Bhōtīā	III	i	129	A name sometimes used for Bhōtīā of Bhutan or Lhoke (69).
Duleng	A dialect of Kachin (203) reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey to be spoken by 3,000 people in Putao District.
Dulien	III	iii	127	Another name for Lushēi (224).
Dūmi	105	III	i	276, 343 (Vocabulary), 372.	A Khambū (87) dialect spoken in the upper valleys of Nepal.
Dūng-rī	IX	iii	14	Another name for the Bhili of Edar (678).
Dūngarwārā	Another spelling of Dūgar-wārā, <i>q.v.</i>
Dūngmāli	98	III	i	343 (Vocabulary), 362.	A Khambū (87) dialect spoken in the upper valleys of Nepal.
Dupdoriā	III	ii	265, 270	A name sometimes given to Āo Nāgā (166).
Durre (?)	Said to be a language of Western Nepal. Not identified.
Dyko	The Khasi name for Gārō (134).
Dzārpi	480	5,000	...	VII	...	218, 244, 273	A form of the Central Provinces dialect (476) of Marāṭhi (455) spoken in Ellichpur (Berar). It is also called Jhādpi.
Dzo	Reported as the name of a dialect of Lushēi (224) <i>Cf. Zo.</i>
Dzunā	156	1,430	...	III	ii	205, 220, 246 (L.).	A dialect of Angāmi Nāgā (154) spoken in the Naga Hills (Assam).
E or I	Another name for Kwelshin, <i>q.v.</i>
Eastern Bengali	See Bengali, Eastern (545).
Eastern Balōchī	365	376,822	...	X	...	330, 336 (Grammar), 387, 434 (L.).	A dialect of Balōchī (361) spoken in Eastern Baluchistan and the adjoining parts of British India.
Eastern Group (1)	...	4,610,311	1,981,675	X	...	3	A group of languages of the Iranian Branch of the Aryan Sub-Family. It includes Pashtō (337), Ōrmūri (360), Balōchī (361), and the Ghalchah languages (370-378). The Survey figures include speakers who live outside the limits of British India, in countries not subject to the operations of the Census.
Eastern Group (2)	...	89,589,036	61,171,923	V	i	1	A group of the Outer Sub-Branch of the Indo-Aryan languages. It includes Oriyā (502), Bihārī (506), Bengali (529), and Assamese (552).
Eastern Hindī	557	24,511,647	1,399,528 (23,667,882)	VI IX	...	1 47 (meaning of name).	The only language of the Mediate Group of Indo-Aryan languages. It is spoken mainly in Oudh and the Districts to the south in the U. P., in Baghelkhand, and in the east of the C. P. The Census figures are estimates. Regarding the Census figures, see No. 557.
Eastern Nāgā	...	10,000	...	III	ii	193, 329	A sub-group of the Nāgā Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It includes a number of small languages spoken in East Assam, and, mostly, outside settled British territory.
Eastern Pahārī	279,715	IX	iv	1, 17	Another name for Khas-kurā or Naipālī (781).
Eastern Pashai	386	VIII	ii	89, 118 (L.)	A dialect of Pashai (385), spoken in Laghman.
Eastern Pronominalized languages.	...	66,885	85,108	III	i	273	A sub-group of the Pronominalized Himalayan Tibeto-Burman languages. It includes Khambū (87) and a number of other languages spoken in Nepal.
Ēmbs	II	ii	411	Another name for Ēmpēo (183).
Ēmpēo or Kachchā Nāgā	183	10,280	9,959	III	ii	193, 379, 411, 432 (L.).	A language of the Nāgā-Bodo sub-group of the Nāgā group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It is spoken in North Cachar (Assam).

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En or In	A language reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey to belong to the Mōu-Khmēr Branch of the Austro-Asiatic languages, and to be spoken by 1,550 people in Kēngtūng (Southern Shan States).
Iranian Branch	4,617,890	1,937,943	X	...	1	A Branch of the Aryan Sub-Family of the Indo-European Family. So far as this Survey is concerned it includes two Groups,—an Eastern and a Western. The only example of the latter dealt with in the Survey is Persian (331). For the former, see Eastern Group (1).
Eriligāru	An old name for Irula (389).
Erāṅā or Singlī	IV	...	143, 163	A form of Korwā (25).
Falam Chia	Another name for Shunkla (216), <i>q.v.</i>
Fanzai . . .	225	III	iii	129	A dialect of Lushēi (224) spoken in the South Lushēi Hills. The number of speakers is unknown.
Fārsī	Properly 'Persian' (331), but commonly used for Urdū (585) as full of Persian words, and even, in contradistinction to the current colloquial, for Literary Hindī (586).
				XI	...	60	It is also used by the Sāsīs for their secret argot (871). <i>Cf.</i> Fārsī and Qasāi.
Firaṅgī	The same as Gōmāntakī or Goanese, <i>i.e.</i> the Kōṅkanī (491) of Goa, as spoken by natives of Portuguese origin.
Fursavi	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a term used in Khandesh for Urdū (585). <i>Cf.</i> Fārsī.
Gachikolo	VII	...	331	A form of Hal*bi (490).
Gadabā . . .	30	35,833	33,065	IV	...	21, 229, 243 (L.)	A Mundā language spoken in the North-East Hills of the Madras Presidency.
Gādi or Baa-maurī .	343	14,946	...	IX	iv	769, 793, 863 (L.)	One of the Chambā dialects (841) of Western Pahārī (814). It is spoken in Chamba State and in Kangra (Punjab).
Gahērī	Reported as the name of a dialect of Hindī (586) in the 1891 C. P. Census Report. Not since identified.
Gahjāra . . .	564	243,400	...	VI	...	19, 149	A Sub-Dialect of the Baghelī (559) dialect of Eastern Hindī (557) spoken in Banda (U. P.).
Gānri	III	i	469	A name given to Bunāu (74) along the lower Bhaga River.
Gaku	Another name for Gheko Karen (39), <i>q.v.</i>
Galē	VIII	ii	514	Another name for Chilis (410).
Gāmaḍiā . . .	656	IX	ii	391	A name for the rural dialects generally of Gujarātī (652). Also called Grāmīya. Only in Ahmadabad (Bombay) is it used to specify a particular rural dialect (664). <i>Cf.</i> Gāḍwārī.
	664	IX	ii	410	
Gāmaḍi or Gām*ṭi .	688	49,715	...	IX	iii	6, 108, 119	A dialect of Bhili (677) spoken in Surat (Bombay) and Nawsari of Baroda. According to Dr. Enoch Hedberg, in the Bombay Census Report for 1921, Appendix B, p. iii, 'Gām*ṭi' means simply 'the Village Language,' and is the same as Māwchi (694), which is the real name.
Ganan . . .	283	...	1,022	Reported as a Sak (Lūi) language spoken in Katha and Upper Chindwin. Supposed to be a dialect of Kadu (281).
Ganaw	See Danaw.
Gāndē	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a dialect of Marāṭhī (455) spoken in Nāsik. Not since identified. In the 1921 Bombay Census Report it is suggested that the word may mean the gibberish spoken by some insane. <i>Cf.</i> Gujarātī gāndō, mad.
Gangai (?)	Said to be a form of Bārā (127). Not identified.
Gāṅgāpārī	A name sometimes used south of the Ganges for the Awadhī (558) spoken on the other side of the river.
Gāṅgāpāriyā	IX	iv	280, 343, 355 (L.)	Another name for Tehri (813).
Gāṅgōlā . . .	798	37,734	...	IX	iv	110, 230	A sub-dialect of the Kumaunī dialect (785) of Central Pahārī (784). Spoken in Almora (U. P.).
Gāṇṭhachōr	XI	...	17	Another name for Bhaṇṭā. <i>Cf.</i> Bhamṭi (856).
Gāoli . . .	626	16,093	...	IX	i	550, 554	A form of the Bundeli dialect (610) of Western Hindī (581). Spoken in Chhindwara (C. P.).

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Gāṇwārī	'Village Dialect' (cf. Gāmadīā and Gāw-wārī), and applicable to any rural dialect. It is commonly used as the local name for Eastern Maithilī (510). The Nagpurīā (526) form of Bhojpuri (519) has been specially so named, and a grammar of it has been written under that title.
Garhwal Bhōṭiā	See Bhōṭiā of Garhwal (66).
Garhwālī	804	670,824	...	IX	iv	1, 103, 279, 281 (Grammar), 355 (L.).	A dialect of Central Pāhārī (784), spoken in Garhwal and the neighbouring Districts.
Gārī or Banūn	A form of Lāhulī (or Bhōṭiā of Lahul) (62) reported to be spoken in Lahul. Not recorded in this Survey.
Gārō or Māndē Kusik .	134	139,763	216,117	III	ii	2, 4, 68, 133 (L.), 134 (do.).	A language of the Bārā group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. Spoken in the Garo Hills (Assam) and neighbouring Districts. For the standard dialect, see Achik (135).
Gārōḍī or Gārūḍī . .	858	XI	...	2, 5, 6, 82	A Gipsy language spoken in the Bombay Presidency and in the C. P.
Gārwi or Bashghārīk .	408	VIII	ii	3, 507, 530 (L.)	A dialect of the Dardic Kōhistanī, spoken in the Swat Kohistan.
Gaṭṭu	315	2,033	...	IV	...	472, 476, 528, 541.	A dialect of Gōṇḍī (313), spoken by Gaṭṭus or Hill Kōis in Chanda (C. P.), Vizagapatam, and Godavari (Madras).
Gauḍiā or Gauḍō	Properly the language of North Bengal, but reported in the 1891 Madras Census Report as a name for Oriyā (502).
Gaungto	A form of Zayein (41) spoken in the Southern Shan States.
Gaurō	VIII	ii	514, 531 (L.)	A Kōhistanī language akin to Tōrwālī (409). Also spelt Gowro. Spoken in the Indus Kohistan.
Gāvit	IX	iii	95	Another name for Māwchī (694). See Gāwat'ḍi.
Gavli	Reported in 1911 Bombay Census Report as a form of Marāṭhī (455), spoken in Nasik. Perhaps a form of Khāndēsi (707).
Gawar-bati or Narsāṭī .	384	VIII	ii	2, 69, 80, 113 (L.).	A Dardic language spoken in the Chitral Country, at the confluence of the Bashgal and Chitral Rivers.
Gāw-wārī	IX	i	291	'Village Dialect' (cf. Gāmadīā and Gāṇwārī). Used as a name for the Braj Bhākhā (592) spoken in the east of the Agra District (U. P.).
Geta or Gebo Karen . .	33	...	11,160	A form of Karen (31) reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 7,132 people in the Toungoo District. Geta is the name used by the speakers themselves. The Burmese call them Karenbyu or 'White Karen.'
Geleki-Duor	III	ii	331	A name sometimes used for Angwānku (173).
Gentoo	IV	...	576	An old name for Telugu (319). It is a corruption of the Portuguese <i>gentio</i> , gentile, heathen. Portuguese writers employ it to designate Hindūs, as contrasted with Musalmāns (<i>Mouro</i> , Moor).
Ghālchah Sub-Group	X	...	3, 9	A sub-group of the Eastern Group of the Iranian languages. It includes Wakhī (370), Shighānī (371), Ishkāshunī (373) and Munjānī (377), all spoken in the Pāmir and neighbouring country. No enumeration was possible of the speakers of any language of this sub-group. For the connexion between the Ghālchah and the Dardic languages, see Vol. VIII, Pt. II, pp. 4ff.
Ghāṭā-khāl-chī Varhāḍī	VII	...	235	A form of the Varhāḍī dialect (477) of Marāṭhī (455) spoken in the north of Buldana (Berar).
Ghāṭā-var-chī Varhāḍī	VII	...	235	A form of the Varhāḍī dialect (477) of Marāṭhī (455) spoken in the south of Buldana (Berar).
Ghāṭī	469	3,000	...	VII	...	61, 64, 119	A variety of the Konkani Standard dialect (457) of Marāṭhī (455). It is spoken in the Western Ghats between Kolaba and the Bhor State. It is probably (p. 64) identical with Māoli (470).
Ghēki	444	30,308	...	VIII	i	243, 433, 449, 468, 522 (L.).	A form of the North-Eastern dialect (436) of Lahndā (415), spoken in the Western Salt Range (Panjab).
Gheko Karen	39	...	2,579	A form of Karen (31) reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 3,976 people in the Yamethin and Toungoo Districts.

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Ghetli	Reported in the 1891 Central Provinces Census Report as a form of Marāṭhī (455). Not since identified.
Ghīṛzaṭ sub-dialect	344	X	...	43	A form of the North-Eastern dialect (338) of Paṣṭō (337) spoken in Afghanistan between Kandahar and Jalalabad.
Ghisāḍī	IX XI	ii ...	325, 453, 461 (L.) 2	Another name for Tārimūki (676).
Ghogārī	A Gipsy language reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report. Not since identified.
Gilgitī	393	VIII	ii	3, 150, 151, 224 (L.)	A dialect of Shiqā (391) spoken in the Gilgit Valley (Kashmir).
Gipsy languages	854	101,671	15,018	XI	...	1, 4, 5	A number of unclassified languages spoken by wandering or criminal tribes in various parts of India. They are discussed in Vol. XI of the Survey, on p. 2 of which will be found named a number of Gipsy tribes whose languages are not described. The name 'Gipsy' has nothing to do with the Romanis of Europe. Of the figures here given, those of the Survey are the more accurate.
Girāsīā	689	90,700	...	IX IX	ii iii	70 6, 26	A dialect of Bhīlī (677) spoken in Marwar and Sirohi.
Giripārī	318	24,364	...	IX	iv	56, 477 (Gram-mar), 531 (L.).	A form of the Sirmauri dialect (816) of Western Pahārī (814), spoken in Nahan and Jubbāl States (Panjab).
Girvānam	A by-name for Paṭṭṇī (674) used in Madras.
Gnamei	Another name for Angāmi (154).
Gcanese or Gōmāntakī	VII	...	163	Another name for the Kōṅkaṇī dialect (494) of Marāṭhī (455).
Gōḍwānī or Maṇḍlāhā	VI	...	158, 261 (L.)	A corrupt form of Baghēli (559) spoken in Mandla (C.P.).
Gōḍwārī	725	147,000	...	IX	ii	17, 87, 88	A form of the Mārwarī dialect (713) of Rājasthānī (712) spoken in Marwar and Kishangarh States.
Gōhilwādī	670	631,000	...	IX	ii	435	A form of the Kāṭhiyāwādī dialect (666) of Gujarātī (652) spoken in Kathiawar (Bombay). It is also called Bhāvnagarī.
Gōjarī	Another spelling of Gujarī (776) used in the Panjab.
Gōlārī (1)	323	25	...	IV	...	577, 594	A dialect of Telugu (319) spoken by nomadic Gōlars in Chanda (C. P.).
Gōlārī (2) or Hōliyā	300	3,614	...	IV XI	...	363, 385 1	A dialect of Kanarese (396) spoken by nomadic Gōlars and Hōliyās in the C. P., except in Chanda, where we find Gōlārī (1).
Golla	A form of Telugu (319) reported in the 1911 and 1921 Bombay Census Reports as spoken by men of the Golla caste in Bijapur and Dharwar.
Gōmāntakī	Another name for Goanese, <i>q.v.</i>
Gōṇḍāṇī or Gōṇḍī (1)	VI	...	123, 261 (L.)	A name given to the Baghēli (559) spoken by Gōṇḍas in Rewa State and Mandla (C. P.). The same term is often used to indicate some other Aryan language as spoken by Gōṇḍas. Thus, it is used as a synonym for Chhattisgarhī (572) and for Oriyā (502) in each case, as spoken by Gōṇḍas.
Gōṇḍī (2)	313	1,322,190	1,616,911	IV	...	286, 472, 647 (L.)	One of the Intermediate Groups of Dravidian languages.
„ Standard Dialect	314	1,147,180	...	IV	...	286, 472	Spoken in the C. P., Berar, Hyderabad, and the adjoining parts of Central India and Madras.
Gōṇḍlā	III	i	467	Another name for Ranglōi (75), <i>q.v.</i>
Gōṇḍwāṇī	The same as Gōṇḍāṇī, <i>q.v.</i>
Gōpāl	The name of a Gipsy tribe reported from Berar. Not identified.
Gōrakhpurī	523	1,307,500	...	V V	ii ii	43, 224, 228 300	A form of the Bhojpurī dialect (519) of Bihārī (506) spoken in Gorakhpur (U. P.). The name is also sometimes used to indicate Madhēsī (527).
Gōpāwāṇī	717	15,000	...	IX	ii	17, 71, 74	A form of the Mārwarī dialect (713) of Rājasthānī (712), spoken in Kishangarh State and Ajmer.

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Gorkhālī or Gōrkhālī	IX	iv	18	Another name for Khas-kurā, Eastern Pahārī, or Naipālī (781). The name is also wrongly given to the Awadhī (558) spoken by Thārūs of Kherī (U. P.).
Gorkhiyā	Another name for Gorkhālī, <i>q.v.</i>
Goṭṭe	IV	...	472	Another spelling of Gaṭṭa, <i>q.v.</i>
Goundan	A name sometimes given to Tamil (385). It is really a Madras caste-name.
Gōvārī	481	2,650	...	VII	...	218, 279	A form of the Central Provinces dialect (476) of Marāṭhī (455). It is a corrupt jargon spoken by cowherds (Gōvārs) in Chhidwara, Chanda, and Bhandara (C. P.).
Gowro	See Gaurō.
Grāmya	The same as Gāmaḍiā (656), <i>q.v.</i>
Grandha	A name sometimes used for Tamil (385). Properly the name of a written character.
Guglī	Reported in the 1891 Baroda Census Report as a form of Kachchhī (451). It is the language of the Guglī Brāhmaṇs.
Gujarā	The same as Gujarātī (652). It is the local name used in Cutch to distinguish Gujarātī from Kachchhī (451). In Khandesh it is the language of Gujar Kunbis and Gujar Vāṇīs, and is probably a form of Khāndeśī (707).
Gujarātī	652	10,646,227	9,551,932	IX	i	xiii	A language of the Central Group of Indo-Aryan languages. Regarding the Gujarātī spoken in Cutch, see Vol. VIII, Pt. i, p. 183.
„	IX	ii	323ff.	
„ Standard Dialect	653	IX	ii	365, 460 (L.)	Spoken in Gujarat.
„ of Musalmāns	IX	ii	326, 436	See Pārsī Gujarātī (600).
„ of Pārsīs	IX	ii	326	
Gujarātī of Thar and Parkar.	IX	ii	326	A dialect of Rājasthānī (712), spoken in the Panjab Plains, and in the hills of the North-West.
„ Ancient	IX	ii	353	
Gujarī	776	297,673	...	IX	iv	10, 925	Spoken in the sub-montane plains of the Panjab.
„ of the Plains	780	19,362	...	IX	iv	1, 10, 959	A name sometimes used for Gujarātī (652).
Gujarū	A form of Gujarī (776) spoken in Hazara (N.-W. Frontier Province), Swat, and the neighbourhood. The Survey figures also include those for Ajirī of Hazara (778).
Gujurī of Hazara	777	25,619	...	IX	iv	1, 10, 930, 941, 964 (L.)	
„ of Kashmir	779	352,692	...	IX	iv	1, 953, 965 (L.)	A form of Gujarī (776) spoken in Kashmir.
Gekka	Another name for Gheko Karen (39), <i>q.v.</i>
Gulguliā	853	853	...	XI	...	2, 5, 6, 175	A Gipsy language (854) spoken by a vagrant tribe found in Bengal, Bihar, Orissa, and Chota Nagpur.
Gumsarī	A form of Oriyā (502) spoken in Gumsar (Madras). It is hardly a dialect. Save in a few minor points of grammar and pronunciation it is the same as Standard Oriyā. Any peculiarities are due to the influence of Telugu (319). It may be taken as typical of all the Oriyā of Ganjam and Vizagapatam (Madras).
Gunnga	A form of Yinbaw (38), <i>q.v.</i>
Gurbī	Reported in the 1911 Bombay Census Report as a Gipsy language spoken in Rewakantha. Not identified.
Gurēzī	395	VIII	ii	3, 150, 174	A dialect of Shīnā (391) spoken in the Gurais Valley (Kashmir).
Gurī-Bāwā	IV	...	107	The name of a sub-caste speaking Kōḍā (19).
Gurjara	IX	iv	8	The name of a people that invaded India in ancient times, whose present language is related to Rājasthānī (712) and other forms of Indo-Aryan speech.
Gurmukhī	IX	i	24	A name often wrongly given to Pañjabī (632). It is really the name of a written character commonly used for writing that language.

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Gurung	111	...	5,211	III	i	177, 180, 182, 254 (L.).	A non-pronominalized Himalayan Tibeto-Burman language. It is mostly spoken in Upper Nepal.
Gurvi	A name sometimes given for Nīmāḍi (770), <i>q.v.</i>
Gyāmi	A dialect of Chinese, spoken on the Chinese side of the frontier between Tibet and Western China.
Gyārūng	A form of Bhōṭiā of Tibet or Tibetan (58) spoken in Eastern Tibet.
Ha-Ang	A form of Palaung (4) reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken in the Ruby Mines District.
Mabūrā	690	950	...	IX XI	iii	6, 174, 185 2, 5, 6	A dialect of Bhili (677) spoken in Aligarh (U. P.).
Hāḍi	V	i	214	The name of a tribe speaking Haijong Bengali (547).
Hāḍōṭi	Another name for Hāpauṭi (750).
Haidarābādi	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Urdū (585).
Haijong	547	5,000	...	V	i	19, 201, 214, 354 (L.).	A form of the Eastern dialect (545) of Bengali (529) spoken in Sylhet (Assam) and Mymensingh (Bengal). Incorrectly called Hajang or Hajong.
Hajang, Hajong	V	i	214	See the preceding.
Haka or Banngshè	220	14,250	2,458	III	iii	115, 160 (L.).	A dialect of Lai (219) spoken in the Chin Hills. Also reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 2,982 persons in Pakōkku and Upper Chindwin. In the All-India Census it is called Kwelshin.
Hal'bi	490	104,971	...	VII	...	2, 219, -330, 393 (L.).	A sub-dialect of the Central Provinces dialect (476) of Marāṭhi (455) spoken in Bastar, Chhattisgarh (C. P.) and the neighbourhood.
Hālāḍi	669	770,000	...	IX	ii	425	A form of the Kāṭhiyāwādi dialect (666) of Gujarāṭi (652). It is also called Hālāi.
Hālāi	See the preceding.
Hallām	232	26,848	3,131	III	iii	3, 181, 192, 292 (L.).	An Old Kuki language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. Spoken in Sylhet (Assam) and Hill Tipperah (Bengal).
Hallām, Standard Dialect	233	26,533	...	III	iii	3, 192	The Survey figures also include those for Khelua (234).
Haṇḍūrī	823	50,211	...	IX	iv	549, 586, 628 (L.).	A form of the Kūṭhālī dialect (821) of Western Pahārī (814). Spoken in the Simla Hills (Panjab).
'Hangkoop'	III	iii	59	Said to be a form of Thādo (207).
'Hangseen'	III	iii	59	Said to be a form of Thādo (207).
Hār	IV	...	30	Another name for Santālī (15).
Haraj	An unknown language reported from Ahmedabad in the 1891 Bombay Census Report.
Haranshikārī	Reported in 1911 Bombay Census Report as a form of Kanarese (296) spoken in Bijapur and Dharwar. Apparently the same as Advichanchi, <i>q.v.</i>
Hāpauṭi	750	991,101	...	IX	ii	3, 4, 21, 203	A sub-dialect of the Central Eastern dialect (740) of Rājasthānī (712) spoken in Bundi and Kota States (Rajputana).
Hāpauṭi, Standard	751	943,101	...	IX	ii	203	
Hari	The same as Kanarese (296). The name of a Madras caste, said to speak a corrupt Kanarese.
Hariāoi or Dēswālī	591	557,953	...	IX	i	66, 252, 264	A form of the Bāngarū dialect (588) of Western Hindī (581), spoken in the South-East Panjab.
Harigayā	143	1,100	...	III	ii	96	A dialect of Kōch (142) spoken in the Garo Hills (Assam).
Harod	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of 'Hindi.' ? incorrect for Hāpauṭi (750).
Hār rāṭ	IV	...	30	Another name for Santālī (15).
Harthī	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Gujarāṭi (652).
Hashwe Karen	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of Karen (31) spoken by 600 people in Toungoo District.

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Hatigoria	III	ii	193, 271	Another name for Āo Nāgā (166), <i>q.v.</i>
Hanlgo or Hualgo .	216	...	3,150	III	iii	108	Said to be the same as the Kweshin form of Shunkla (216).
Havika	The same as Kanarese (296). The name of a sub-division of Brāhmins in Madras Presidency who speak a corrupt Kanarese.
Hāyu	III	i	276, 382	Another name for Vāyu (106). Spoken in Central Nepal.
Hazara Hindkī	VIII	i	565	A form of North-Western Lahndā (433). Spoken in Hazara (N.-W. Frontier Province).
Hemi	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey to be a Nāgā language spoken by 4,000 people in the Upper Chindwin District.
Hé Miao or 'Black Miao'	A Miao (43) dialect spoken in Western China. The speakers call themselves 'Phō.' Cf. Pé Miao.
High Hindī	IX	i	46, 163	The prose literary form of Hindī (586).
Hills Kāchārī	III	ii	56	Another name for Dīmā-sā (131).
Himalayan Group	194,234	208,378	III	i	2	A group of Tibeto-Burman languages spoken in the lower Himalaya from Darjiling to Lahul. In the list of languages it is divided into the Pronominalized Himalayan Group (72-110) and the Non-Pronominalized Himalayan Group (111-121).
Hindī . . .	586	IX	i	44, 46, 47 (meaning of name), 163.	A form of the Hindōstānī dialect (582) of Western Hindī (581). Widely spoken throughout Northern India.
				IX	i	383, 558	Also, a name given to Kanaujī (604) in the Farukhabad District (U. P.).
				VIII	i	240	Also, a local name for Mūltānī (426).
				VIII	i	240, 333	Also, a local name for the Lahndā (415) spoken in Dera Ghazi Khan (428).
Hindī or Khontai	V	ii	146	A name given in Malda (Bengal) to Eastern Magahī (518).
'Hindī' of Nagpur	IX	i	547	See Nāgpurī 'Hindī' (631).
Hindkī or Jaṭkī . .	428	362,370	...	VIII	i	333, 413 (L.)	A form of the Mūltānī dialect (426) of Lahndā (415) spoken in Dera Ghazi Khan District (Panjab). The name Hindkī is also used to indicate other forms of Lahndā. Thus :—
				VIII	i	233	It is used for Lahndā generally.
				VIII	i	240	It is a local name for Mūltānī (426).
				VIII	i	240, 382	It is used not only for the Lahndā of Dera Ghazi Khan, but also for that of Dera Ismail Khan (N.-W. Frontier Province).
				VIII	i	242	It is used for the Awānkārī sub-dialect (443) of North-Eastern Lahndā (436).
				VIII	i	450, 458	It is used in Kohat for the same.
				VIII	i	241, 565	It is used as a general term for North-Western Lahndā (433).
Hindkō . . .	433	881,425	...	VIII	i	239, 241, 431 (compared with North-Eastern Dialect), 541, 544, 576 (L.)	A general name for the North-Western Dialect of Lahndā (415) spoken in Peshawar, Hazara (N.-W. Frontier Province), and the neighbourhood. The name Hindkō is also used to indicate other forms of the same language. Thus :—
Hindkō, Standard .	434	827,000	...	VIII	i	233	It is used for Lahndā generally.
				VIII	i	242	It is used for the Awānkārī sub-dialect (443) of North-Eastern Lahndā (436).
				VIII	i	450, 458	It is used in Kohat for the same.
				VIII	i	241, 381, 382, 404.	It is used for the Thālī Lahndā (432) spoken in Mianwali (Panjab) and Banna (N.-W. Frontier Province).
Hindoostanee	An old name for Hindōstānī (582).
Hindōstānī . . .	582	16,633,169	...	IX	i	1, 47 (meaning of name), 171 (in Eastern India), 174 (in Gujaraṭ), 570 (L.).	A dialect of Western Hindī (581), having its home in Northern India, but also very widely used as a <i>lingua franca</i> .

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Hindōstānī, Literary Sub-Dialect.	584	7,696,264	...	IX	i	1, 42, 57 (Grammar), 95.	
Hindōstānī, Vernacular Sub-Dialect.	583	5,282,733	...	IX	i	1, 42, 63, 213, 570 (L.).	Spoken in Western Rohilkhand and the Upper Gangetic Doab (U. P.) and in Ambala (Panjab).
Hindūrī	Incorrect for Haṇḍūrī (823), <i>q.v.</i>
Hindustanica	IX	i	7, 8, 9, 43	An old Latin name for Hindōstānī (582). Cf. Indostanica, Mourica, and Mogulsch. Spelt Hindostanica by Abel (Vol. IX, Pt. I, pp. 11, 43).
Hinkyen	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of Palaung (4) spoken by 554 people in the Hsipaw Northern Shan State.
Hiou	III	iii	331	Another name for Khyang or Shō (256).
Hirōi-Lamgāng . .	248	750	744	III	iii	3, 181, 231, 295 (L.).	An Old Kuki language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It is spoken in Manipur State (Assam). The Survey figures are merely a rough estimate.
Hirwāṭī	IX	ii	49	Another name for Ahirwāṭī (759).
Hiu	Another spelling of Hiou, <i>q.v.</i>
Hkāmṭī	See Khāmṭī.
Hkamuk	See Khamuk.
Hkūn	See Khūn.
Hkunlong	See Khunlong.
Hkunung	Another spelling of Khunung, the alternative name of Nung (Burma Linguistic Survey).
Hlunseo	A form of the Laiyo dialect of Lai (219) reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken in the Chin Hills. Number of speakers not stated.
Hmār	242	2,000	8,586	III	iii	3, 127-3, 181, 256	An Old Kuki language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. The Survey figures are merely a rough estimate. In the Survey, the principal spelling of the name of this language is Mhār, with Hmār as a variant. The latter spelling is that which is correct.
Hmeng or Hmōng	A dialect of Miao (43), <i>q.v.</i> Spoken in the Mōng Pan and Kēngtūng Shan States (Burma).
Hniyun	Another name for Yindu (253), <i>q.v.</i>
Hō (1)	IV	...	406, 410, 423	A name sometimes wrongly given to Kurukh (305).
Hō (2) or Kōl . .	20	383,126	447,862	IV	...	21, 28, 116	A dialect of Kherwārī (14), spoken in Singbhum and Manbhum (Bihar and Orissa).
Hoch-Indostanisch	IX	i	11	An old German name for Western and Eastern Hindi (581, 557) and Bihārī (506).
Hohsa Shān	See Hos'a Shān.
Ho Hta	See Ho Tha.
Hōjai	133	2,750	...	III	ii	4, 56, 62, 133 (L.).	A dialect of Dimā-sē (131) spoken in Nowgong (Assam).
Holava	The same as Oṛiyā (502). A Madras caste-name.
Hōliyā	IV	...	385	Another name for Gōlari (300), <i>q.v.</i>
Homaing	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of the Pale dialect of Palaung (4) spoken by 379 people in Mōng Long Northern Shan State.
Homong	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of the Pale dialect of Palaung (4) spoken by 2,655 people in the Northern Shan States.
Hop'a	277a	A Lolo-Me'so language spoken in Putao (Burma) outside the Census area.
Hor	An old spelling of Hār, <i>i.e.</i> Santālī (15).
Horo-liā Jhagar	IV	...	79	A form of Muṇḍārī (16) spoken by Kurukhs in Ranchi (Bihar and Orissa).
Hor Tseng	A form of Bhōṭā of Tibet or Tibetan (58) spoken in Central Tibet.

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Horu-Muthun	III	ii	333	A form of Mutoniā (176), <i>q.v.</i>
Hos'a Shān	Another name for Maingtha (260), <i>q.v.</i>
Hoshiarpur Pahārī . . .	638	207,321	...	IX	i	671, 677	A form of the Standard dialect (633) of Pañjābī (632) spoken in the Hill Country of Hoshiarpur (Panjab). The Survey figures include those for Kahlūri (637).
Ho Tha	A form of Zayein (41), reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey to be spoken in the Southern Shan States. In the Report it is spelt Ho Hta.
Howhul	III	iii	109	Another name for Zahao (218).
Hpin	Another spelling of Phin. See Pyin.
Hpō	Another name for Phón (272a), <i>q.v.</i>
Hpón	The Burmese Government spelling of Phón (272a) <i>q.v.</i>
Hpye	Another name for Phón (272a), <i>q.v.</i>
Hrangchal	The Lushai name for Hrāngkhōl (229).
Hrāngkhōl, Rāngkhōl, or Hrangchal.	229	8,450	671	III	iii	3, 10 (Comparative Vocabulary) 181, 292 (L.)	An Old Kuki language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in North Cachar and Khasi and Jaintia Hills (Assam) and the Hill Tippera State (Bengal). Hrāngkhōl (not Rāngkhōl, as in the Survey) is the correct name of this language. The Lushais call it Hrangchal.
Hrāngkhōl, Rāngkhōl, or Hrangchal, Standard.	230	7,820	...	III	iii	3, 181	Spoken in North Cachar and Hill Tippera. See the preceding. The other dialect of this language is Bētē (231), <i>q.v.</i>
Hrasso	III	i	573	Another name for Aka (122).
Hsaw-ko Karen	See S'aw-ko Karen.
Hsem, Hsen	See S'em.
Hsen Hsum	See S'en S'um.
Hsentung	See S'entung.
Hsiniam	See S'inlam.
Hsinleng	See S'inleng.
Htai	See Thai.
Hta-Mo	See Tha-Mo.
Htangsa	See Thangsa.
Htaote	See Thaote.
Hualngo . . .	216	...	3,150	III	iii	108, 127	Said to be the same as the Kweshin form of Shunkla (216).
Hulan	A form of Palaung (4) reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey to be spoken by 280 people in the Mōng Long Northern Shan State.
Humai	A form of Palaung (4) reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey to be spoken by 1,758 people in the Northern Shan States.
Huṇḍwārī	The local pronunciation of Sōṇḍwārī (763), <i>q.v.</i>
Huniyā	III	i	72	A name sometimes given to Bhōtiā of Tibet or Tibetan (58).
Husein	A form of the Pale dialect of Palaung (4) reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey to be spoken by 1,682 people in the Mōng Long Northern Shan State.
Hwelugow	An unclassified language reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 5,000 people in the Chin Hills. ? The same as Hualngo, <i>q.v.</i>
Hweno	III	iii	107	A form of Shunkla (216). In the Survey it is spelt Whenoh, but Hweno is more correct. Hweno may be but a mispronunciation of Hualngo. The speakers are described as a settlement of Hualngos, who in turn are Lushais.
I	Another spelling of 'E'. See Kwelshin.
I-kaw	The Shān name for Aka (276), <i>q.v.</i> Cf. Kaw.
Iu	Another name for En, <i>q.v.</i>

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Indo-Aryan Branch	226,060,611	229,560,555	I	One of the three Branches of the Aryan Sub-Family of Indo-European languages. The other Branches are the Eranian and the Dardic or Pisācha, <i>q.v.</i> The Indo-Aryan Branch includes (besides Sanskrit, a dead language) three Sub-Branches,—an Outer, a Mediate, and an Inner, <i>q.v.</i>
Indo-European Family	231,874,403	232,852,817	I	A Family of languages, of which only the Aryan Sub-Family is spoken in India. See the preceding.
Indo-Nesian Branch	5,561	A Branch of the Austro-Nesian Sub-Family of the Austric Family of languages. The only languages of this Branch spoken in India are Salōn (1) and Malay (2), neither of which is dealt with in the Survey.
Indostan	IX	i	4, 43	The earliest English name for Hindōstānī (582).
Indostana	IX	i	10	Old Portuguese name for Hindōstānī (582).
Indostanica	IX	i	6, 9	An old Latin name for Hindōstānī (582). <i>Cf.</i> Hindustanica, Mourica, and Mogulsch.
Indostanisch	IX	i	11	An old German name for Hindōstānī (582).
Injang	III	ii	135	Another name for Rengmā or Unzā (162).
Inner Sirājī	See Sirājī, Inner (834).
Inner Sub-Branch	83,770,622	139,166,945	IX	i	1	One of the three Sub-Branches of the Indo-Aryan Branch of the Aryan languages. It includes two Groups, the Central and the Pāhārī. In Vol. IX, Pt. i, p. 1 of the Survey, these two are put together into one Group called 'The Central.' The Central Group includes Western Hindi (581), Pānjābī (632), Gujarātī (652), Bhīlī (677), Khāndēśī (707), and Rājasthānī (712). The Pāhārī Group includes Eastern Pāhārī, Khas-kurā or Nālpālī (781), Central Pāhārī (784), and Western Pāhārī (814).
Intermediate Group	2,180,858	3,056,598	IV	...	284ff.	A Group of Dravidian languages, intermediate between the Dravida languages and the Andhra language. It includes Kurukh (305), Malhar (306), Malto (307), Kui (308), Kolāmi (309), and Gōṇḍī (313).
Inṭha . . .	268	...	55,007	A dialect of Burmese (265). It is not dealt with in this Survey. According to the Burma Linguistic Survey, it is spoken by 60,881 people in the Southern Shan States and the neighbourhood. It is closely connected with Tavoyan (270).
Inzēmī . . .	184	III	ii	411	A dialect of Ēmpō (183), spoken in the Naga Hills (Assam).
Irānī	Another name for Persian (331).
Irnla . . .	289	1,614	...	IV	...	299, 332	A dialect of Tamil (285) spoken in the Nilgiri Hills (Madras) and vicinity.
Isāchānu-rē	III	ii	290	Another name for Thukumi (171).
Ishang	III	i	189	Another name for Murmi (112), <i>q.v.</i>
Ishkāshmi . . .	373	X	...	455, 480ff., 505	A language of the Ghalchah Sub-Group of the Eastern Group of Eranian languages. Spoken in the Pāmirs.
Ishkāshmi, Standard . . .	374	X	...	480ff., 505, 532 (L.).	
Jabalpurī	41	A dialect of Bagbēli (559) reported in the 1921 Central India Census Report, as spoken in Rewa.
Jacobabad Sub-Dialect . . .	366	125,510	...	X	...	401, 435 (L.)	A form of the Eastern dialect (365) of Balōchī (361), spoken in the Upper Sind Frontier District. The Survey figures include also the figures for the Balōchī spoken in Dera Ghazi Khan.
Jad (1)	III	i	15, 16, 91	Another name for the Bhōṭiā of Tehri Garhwal (65).
Jad (2)	III	i	86	A name sometimes used instead of Nyamkat for the Bhōṭiā of Upper Kanawar (64).
Jādara	Another name for Kanarese (296). A Madras caste-name.
Jādējī	VIII	i	183	Another name for Kachchhī (451), current in Kathiawar. Often incorrectly written Jārajī.
Jadgālī, Jaghdālī, or Jagdālī	VIII	i	158, 240, 333, 361.	A name used in Baluchistan both for Lahndā (415) and for Sindhī (445).

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Jadōbātī	595	140,000	..	IX	i	70, 298	A form of the Braj Bhākhā Dialect (592) of Western Hindi (581) spoken in Bharatpur and Karauli States, and in N.-W. Gwalior.
Jāfirī	431	14,581	...	VIII	i	240, 372	A corrupt form of Lahndā (415) spoken in Baluchistan, east of Dera Ghazi Khan District (Panjab). The Survey figures include those for Khētrānī (430).
Jagannāthī	A name for Opiyā (502) reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report.
Jagdālī, Jaghdālī	See Jagdālī.
Jahow	III	iii	127	A wrong spelling of Zahao (318).
Jain	A name for a form of Gujarātī (652) reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report.
Jaintiāpurī	V	i	224	Another name for Sylhetīā (548).
Jaipurī	741	1,687,899	...	IX	ii	3, 4, 31, 164, 304 (L.).	A form of the Central Eastern Dialect (740) of Rājasthānī (712) spoken in Jaipur State (Rajputana).
Jaipurī, Standard	742	790,231	...	IX	ii	31, 164, 304 (L.)	
Jaipurīā Nāgā	III	ii	335	Another name for Namsangīā (178).
Jaktung	III	ii	331, 342 (L.)	A name sometimes used for Angwānku (173).
Jamadār	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Urdū (585).
Jamaitā	A form of Tipurā (151).
Jamathī	Reported as a name used in Coorg for Hindōstānī (582).
Jamuālī	A name given to the Dōgrā (647) of Jammu.
Jānar	Another name for Kanarese (296). A Madras caste-name.
Jāpī	IX	i	610, 696, 703	Another name for Pachlādī, Rāthī, or Nailī (640). Spoken in Jind State (Panjab).
Jāngali	A word meaning 'of or belonging to the wilds,' and hence applied to several forms of speech used by wild or more or less uncivilized people. Thus :—
							Used in Bombay for any Bhil language (677-706).
				IX	i	610, 709	Another name for the Mālwāī or Jātī form (641) of Pañjābī (632).
				IV	...	30	A name sometimes given to Santālī (15) in Murshidabad (Bengal). Cf. the next, and Jānggali.
Jāngali or Jāngli	420	30,657	...	VIII	i	239, 280, 295	A form of the Standard dialect (416) of Lahndā (415) spoken in the Jangal Bār (Panjab).
Jāngdī	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Urdū (585) used in Khandesh.
Jānggali	82	200	89	III	i	177, 429, 530, 535 (L.).	A language of the Western Sub-Group of the Pronominalized Himalayan Tibeto-Burman languages spoken in Almora (U. P.). Cf. Jāngali.
Jāngshēn	210	III	iii	59, 61	A dialect of Thādo (207) spoken in North Cachar (Assam). The number of speakers is unknown.
Jānsōn	III	iii	59	Another spelling of Jāngshēn (210).
Japanese	An agglutinative non-Indian language, referred to in the comparative tables.
Jārājī	See Jādējī.
Jātātardī Bōlī	425	147,000	...	VIII	i	239, 299	A form of the Standard dialect (416) of Lahndā (415) spoken in Gujrat District (Panjab).
Jātī	VIII	i	233, 239, 280	Literally, the language of Jātā. Hence used as another name for Lahndā (415), generally.
				VIII	i	240	Also a local name for the Mūltānī dialect (426) of the same.
				VIII	i	240, 333, 382, 398	Also another name for the Hindkī (423) form of the same spoken in Dera Ghazi Khan (Panjab) and in Dera Ismail Khan (N.-W. Frontier Province).

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Jatki— <i>contd.</i>	VIII	i	361	Also another name for Sirāiki Hindki (429).
				VIII	i	241, 381	Also another name for the Thālī dialect (432) of Lahndā.
				VIII	i	280, 281	Also a general name for the Lahndā spoken in Jhang and Lyallpur Districts (Panjab) (418).
				IX	i	610, 709	Also another name for the Mālwaī or Jaṅgalī sub-dialect (641) of Paūjābī (632).
				VIII	i	149	Under the form 'Jatki Lahndā' it indicates the Lahndā spoken in Baluchistan (415).
				VIII	i	149	Under the form 'Jatki Sindhi' it indicates the Lāsī dialect (449) of Sindhi (445).
Jātū (or Jāṭi)	590	732,396	...	IX	i	67, 252, 260	A form of the Bāngarū dialect (588) of Western Hindi (581). Spoken in Delhi and Rohtak Districts (Panjab). Sometimes called Jāṭi.
Jaunpurī	V	ii	260	A name given to the Bhojpurī dialect (519) of Bihārī (506) spoken in Eastern Jaunpur (U. P.) in contradistinction to the Banandhi form of Awadhī (558) spoken in the west of the District.
Jaunsārī	815	47,437	...	IX	iv	374, 383, 413 (Jaunsārī-English Vocab.), 436 (English-Jaunsārī Vocab.), 530 (L.).	A dialect of Western Pahārī (814) spoken in Jaunsar-Bawar (U. P.).
Jēmā	III	ii	411	The same as Yēmā (186), <i>q.v.</i>
Jēmē	III	ii	411	A name used in North Cachar (Assam) for Ēmpēo (183).
Jēnkurnba	A name used in Coorg for Kurumba (299).
Jhāṛpī	Another spelling of Džārpi (480), <i>q.v.</i>
Jhālāwādī	667	437,000	...	IX	ii	425, 461 (L.)	A form of the Kāthiyāwādī dialect (666) of Gujārātī (652), spoken in Kathiawar.
Jhāpī	VII	...	262	Another name for the Varhādī dialect (477) of Marāṭhī (455), as spoken in North-Western Chanda (C. P.). The word means 'Jungle language.'
Jhariā	Reported in the 1891 C. P. Census Report as a form of Oriyā (502). Not since identified.
Jhār-sāhi Bōli	IX	ii	33	Another name for Jaipurī (741).
Jharwā	556	9,000	...	V	i	394	A mongrel dialect of Assamese (552) spoken at the foot of the Garo Hills.
Jhetīā	IV	...	107	The name of a tribe speaking Kōḍā (19).
Jhōriā	Reported as the form of Parjī (318) spoken by the Jhōriās of Madras. They are a sub-division of the Porojas.
Jimdār	III	i	373	Another name for Rāi (88), <i>q.v.</i>
Joboka	III	ii	332	Another name for Banparā (175), <i>q.v.</i>
Jōdhpurī	Another name for Mārwarī (713), <i>q.v.</i>
Jōgī	A Madras caste-name, used as a synonym for Telugu (319).
Jogirā	A Madras caste-name, used as a synonym for Tulu (302).
Jōhaḍī	A dialect reported as spoken by a few people in Chanda (C. P.). It is probably a broken form of Rājasthānī (712).
Jōhārī	803	7,419	...	IX	iv	110, 248	A form of the Kumaunī dialect (785) of Central Pahārī (784), spoken in Almora (U. P.).
Jolahā Bōli	VI	...	118	A name given to the Awadhī (558) spoken by Musalmāns in Muzaffarpur (Bihar and Orissa).
				V	ii	14, 118	Also used to indicate the form of the Maithilī dialect (507) of Bihārī (506) spoken by Musalmāns in Darbhanga (Bihar and Orissa).
Juāṅg	28	15,697	10,531	IV	...	21, 209, 243 (L.)	A Muṇḍā language spoken in the Orissa Tributary States.

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Jullundur Dōābī . . .	635	2,258,769	...	IX	i	610, 671	A form of the Standard dialect (633) of Pañjābī (632) spoken in the Jullundur Doab.
Jūṛar . . .	565	114,500	...	VI	...	19, 152	A form of the Baghelī dialect (559) of Eastern Hindī (557) spoken in Banda (U. P.).
Kabui or Kapwī . . .	187	11,073	15,647	III	ii	193, 379, 416, 433 (L.).	A language of the Nāgā-Bodo Sub-Group of the Nāgā Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. Spoken in Manipur State and East Cachar (Assam).
Kābulī or Kāblī	Another name for Paṣṭō (337).
Ka-chak	A dialect of Yindu (253), reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 2,225 people in Pakōkku.
Kachārī or Kāchārī (1)	III	ii	1	A name used to indicate generally the Bārā or Bodo languages (127, etc.).
Kāchārī (2)	V	i	202, 233	Another name for the form of Sylhetīā Bengali (548) spoken in Cachar (Assam).
Kāchārī, Hills	III	ii	56	Another name for Dīmā-sā (131).
Kāchārī, Plains	III	ii	8	Another name for Bārā or Bodo (127).
Kachchā Nāgā	III	ii	193, 411	Another name for Ēmpō (183), <i>q.v.</i>
Kachchhī . . .	451	491,214	...	VIII	i	9, 10, 183, 215 (L.).	A dialect of Sindhī (445) spoken in Cutch (Bombay).
Kachchhī, Standard . . .	452	484,714	...	VIII	i	183, 215 (L.).	
Kāchhō-jī Bōlī . . .	369	5,000	...	X	...	331, 413ff., 435 (L.).	A form of Balōchī (361) spoken in the Kāchhō, or the country in the west of Karachi District (Sind).
Kāchhī . . .	423	17,972	...	VIII	i	239, 280, 294	A form of the Standard dialect (416) of Lahndā (415) spoken in the Kāchhī, or alluvial country, between the Jehlam river and the Jhang Thāl (Panjab).
Kachin . . .	203	1,920	151,196	III III	ii iii	510, 516 10 (Comparative Vocabulary).	A language of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. The few speakers recorded in the Survey belong to the Lakhimpur and Sib-sagar Districts of Assam. Nearly all the speakers of the language belong to Burma, which was not subject to the operations of this Survey. According to the Burma Linguistic Survey, Kachin is spoken in that Province by 142,785 people in the Northern Hill Districts, and in the Northern Shan States. Compare Singpho for further references.
Kachin-Burma Hybrids	III	iii	381	These, according to the Census of 1911, are Szi Lepai (261), Lashi (262), Maru (263), and Maingtha (260). They are all spoken in Burma, and are not dealt with in this Survey. Pending the completion of the Burma Linguistic Survey, I provisionally class them under the Burma Group as has been done in the Census of 1921. They have been suggested, with considerable probability, to be remnants left by the Burmese on their migration from the North into Burma, or as the languages of tribes of the same origin as the Burmese who left Tibet soon after them. Phōn or Phun (272a) also apparently belongs to this group. All these are dealt with in the Burma Linguistic Survey. For particulars, see each language. According to the Burma Linguistic Survey, the number of speakers differs greatly from that given in the Census, being Szi Lepai, 11,838; Maingtha, 2,781; Lashi, 23,368; Maru, 35,531; and Phōn, 650; total 74,168.
Kachiq Group	1,920	151,196	III III	i ii	2, 11 493	A Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. The Burma Linguistic Survey gives a total of 225,330 speakers in Burma for this Group.
Kachnakhrā	IV	...	407	Another name for Kurukh (305).
Ka-dhak	A dialect of Yindu (253) reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 282 people in Pakōkku.
Kadi	A Gipsy language reported in the 1891 Hyderabad Census Report. Not included in this Survey, which did not extend to that State.

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Kadianse	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Gujarātī (652).
Kadpati	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a name for Gujarātī (652) used in Khandesh.
Kadu or A-sak	281	...	18,594	III	iii	381	A language classed in the Census as belonging to the Sak (Lüi) Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It is closely connected with the Lüi (278) languages, Andro (273) and Songmai (279), and with Sak (284). It is spoken in Burma, which was not subject to the operations of this Survey. According to the Burma Linguistic Survey, it is spoken by 35,300 people in Myitkyina, Katha, and Upper Chindwin.
Kāfir Group	VIII	ii	2, 29, 133 (compared with Khōwār).	One of the three Groups into which the Dardic or Pisācha languages are divided, the other two being Khōwār and the Dard Group. The languages (379-389) of this Group are spoken in Kafiristan and the neighbouring tracts of the Chitral country. The number of speakers is unknown.
Kāghānī	VIII	i	Addenda to p. 506.	The form of Chibhālī (449) spoken in Kagan.
Kāgate	70	III	i	106, 142 (L.)	A dialect of Bhōṭiā (57) spoken in East Nepal and Darjiling (Bengal).
Ka-hang	Another name for Kachin (203), <i>q. v.</i>
Kaharī	The language of the Kahars, a small caste of the North Deccan. They are immigrants, and it is a form of Bundēli (610). See 1921 Bombay Census Report, Apu. B, p. iii.
Kahirkī	A Gipsy language spoken in Sindh. Reported in 1921 Bombay Census Report as more allied to Balōchi than to Sindhi.
Kahlūri or Bilāspurī	637	207,321	...	IX	i	671, 677	A form of the Standard dialect (633) of Panjābī (632) spoken in Bilaspur and Mangal States and Hoshiarpur District (Panjab). The Survey figures include those for Hoshiarpur Pahārī (638).
Kai	Reported to be another name for Taungtha (36).
Kaigilī	Reported as another name for Bhōṭiā of Lahul (62).
Kaikādī	291	8,289	...	IV	...	299, 333, 646 (L.)	A dialect of Tamil (285), spoken mostly in Southern India, by a vagrant tribe.
Kāṭī-kūṭī-ki Bōli	XI	...	1	
Kairālī	IX	ii	33	Another name for Jaipurī (741).
Kairālī	VIII	i	242, 495, 523 (L.)	A form of North-Eastern Lahndā (436), <i>i. q.</i> Dhūṇḍī (439).
Kaithī	VIII	i	207	The same as Kāyasthī (453).
Kā-kachhū-ki Bōli	V	ii	11	Also the name of a written character used in Bihar and the U. P.
Kā-kachhū-ki Bōli	IX	i	70, 71, 329, 332, 364 (L.)	Another name for Dāngī (600).
Kākārī	675	122	...	IX	ii	325, 449	A dialect of Gujarātī (652) spoken by Kākars scattered over the Bombay Deccan.
Kākarī	355	X	...	112	A form of the South-Western dialect (348) of Paṣṭō (337) spoken in Baluchistan.
Kakōrī	774	40	...	IX	iii	259, 293	A form of the Banjārī dialect (771) of Rājasthānī (712), spoken in Jhansi (U. P.).
Kakhyen	III	ii	499	Another spelling of Kachin (203).
Kālahandī	A name given to the Oriyā (502) spoken in the Kālahandī State. It is ordinary Oriyā, not a separate dialect.
Kalaṅgā	579	600	...	VI	...	25, 251	A form of the Chhattisgarhī dialect (572) of Eastern Hindī (557), spoken in Patna State (Bihar and Orissa).
Kalāshā or Kalāshā-mōn	388	VIII	ii	2, 10 (L.), 69, 70, 112 (L.), 133 (compared with Khōwār).	A language of the Kalāshā-Pashai Sub-Group of the Dardic or Pisācha languages. It is spoken in the Chitral country in the Doab between the Chitral and Bashgal Rivers. The number of speakers is unknown.
Kalāshā-Pashai	VIII	ii	2, 69	A Sub-Group of the Kāfir Group of the Dardic or Pisācha languages. It includes Kalāshā (383), Gawar-haī (384), Pashai (385), Dīrī (388), and Tirāhī (369). The number of speakers is unknown.

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Kalasi	A form of Zayein (41) spoken in the Southern Shan States.
Kalāt	334	X	...	452	A form of the Dēhwāri dialect (333) of Persian (331) spoken in Baluchistan.
Kālbā	IV	...	70	Another name for the Kūrmālī form of Santālī (15).
Kālimāl	602	81,216	...	IX	i	70, 329, 362, 364 (L.).	A form of the Braj Bhākhā dialect (592) of Western Hindi (581), spoken in Jaipur State.
Kālīngī	A name sometimes used for Telugu (319).
Kālīparaj	A general name for the Bhil languages spoken in Gujarat.
Kalur	A Gipsy language reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as spoken in Dharwar.
Kaman	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a dialect of Arakanese (266) spoken by 1,211 people in Akyab. It has since been discovered to be the name, not of a dialect but of degraded caste, descended from prisoners of war.
Kamārī or Kāwārī	493	3,743	...	VII	...	2, 219, 330, 386	A form of the Central Provinces dialect (476) of Marāṭhī (455) spoken in Raipur (C. P.).
Kamār Thār	The form of Oriyā (502) spoken by Kamārs in Morbhanj State.
Kāmāthī	326	12,200	...	IV	...	577, 596	A dialect of Telugu (319) spoken by Kāmāthīs, or bricklayers, in Bombay Town and Poona.
Kamhow	See Kanhow.
Kami	III	iii	347	Another name for Khami (257).
Kāmī	119	...	649	III	i	178	A Non-Pronominalized Himalayan Tibeto-Burman language spoken in Western Nepal. Its classification is doubtful.
Kāmti	See Khāmti.
Kānaḍī	Another name for Kanarese (296).
Kanam or Laharang	A form of Kanaurī (77) said to be spoken in the inner Himalaya of the Panjab. It is not recorded in this Survey. ? Cf. Lōhōrōng (93).
Kanarese	296	9,710,832	10,374,204	IV	...	286, 362, 647 (L.).	A language of the Dravida Group of the Dravidian languages spoken in the western half of the Deccan.
Kanarese, Standard	297	9,666,163	...	IV	...	286, 362	
Kanāshī	76	980	539	III	i	177, 428, 442, 532 (L.).	A language of the Western Pronominalized Himalayan Group of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It is an isolated language spoken in Kulu (Panjab).
Kanañjī	604	4,481,500	...	IX	i	1, 2, 82, 383	A dialect of Western Hindi (581) spoken in the U. P. in Cawnpore, Fatehpur, Farrukhabad, and the vicinity.
Kanañjī, Standard	605	3,201,500	...	IX	i	82, 85 (Grammar), 572 (L.).	
Kanañjī of East Hardoi	609	150,000	...	IX	i	82, 395, 411	
Kanañjī, Mixed Sub-Dialects.	606	1,280,000	...	IX	i	82, 401	
Kanañjī of Cawnpore	607	1,090,000	...	IX	i	82, 401	
Kanaurī	77	13,099	22,098	III	i	177, 427, 430, 532 (L.).	A language of the Western Pronominalized Himalayan Group of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It is spoken in Kanaur (Panjab).
Kanāwārī	Another spelling of Kanaurī (77).
Kandahar Sub-Dialect	354	X	...	105, 113 (L.)	A form of the South-Western dialect (348) of Paštō (337), spoken in the country round Kandahar.
Kandhi	IV	...	457	Another name for Kui (308).
Kanḍiālī	649	10,000	...	IX	i	637ff., 775	A form of the Dōgrā dialect (647) of Pañjābī (632) spoken in Gurdaspur (Panjab).
Kang	205a	III	ii	500	The Tai name for Kachin (203).
Kaṅgālī	The Oriyā (502) spoken by Kaṅgālīs in the Orissa Tributary States.
Kāngrā Sub-Dialect	650	636,500	...	IX	i	637ff., 776, 807 (L.).	A sub-dialect of the Dōgrā dialect (647) of Pañjābī (632), spoken in the Kangra District (Panjab) and the neighbourhood.

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Kanhow or Kamhow	8,664	III	iii	72	A dialect of Saktē (312). The Kanhows are a branch of the Saktē tribe.
Kañjarī	860	7,085	...	XI	...	2, 5, 6, 96	A Gipsy language spoken by vagrants in Northern India.
Kankērī	Another name for the Chhāttisgarhī (572) spoken in Kanker State (C. P.).
Kankreji	Reported in the 1921 Baroda Census Report as a name used for Gujarātī (652).
Kanōring Skadd, or Kanōren-nu Skadd.	III	i	430	The indigenous name for Kanaurī (77).
Kao	Another spelling of Kaw, <i>q.v.</i>
Kāorā	IV	...	107	Another spelling of Kōdā (19).
Kaori Lepai	III	ii	501, 503, 510	A form of Kachin (203). Cf. Lepai, Szi Lepai (261).
Kāpēwārī	IV	...	594	A form of Telugu (319).
Kapi	III	iii	115	A form of Lai (219).
Kapwī	III	ii	193, 416	Another name for Kabni (187), <i>q.v.</i>
Karāndī	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Kanarese (296). Probably a corruption of the word 'Karādī', <i>i.e.</i> , Kanarese. See 1921 Bombay Census Report, App. B, p. iv.
Karantith	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a Gipsy language of Kanara. Not since identified.
Karen	31	...	1,114,026	A family of numerous languages or dialects, the correct affiliation of which has not yet been finally determined. It is spoken in Burma, which was not subject to the operations of this Survey. In the Burma Linguistic Survey, it is reported as spoken by 706,393 people.
Karenbyu or White Karen	33	...	11,160	A dialect of Karen (31). See above. In the Burma Linguistic Survey it is reported as spoken by 17,983 people in Lower Burma, Karenni, and the Shan States. The speakers call themselves 'Geba.'
Karennet	12,853	A Palaung-Wa language, the same as Yanglam (6). Not related to Karen. In the Burma Linguistic Survey, it is reported as spoken by 2,622 people in the Northern Shan States.
Karenni	40	...	34,488	'Red Karen.' A dialect of Karen (31), <i>q.v.</i> In the Burma Linguistic Survey, it is reported as spoken by 34,798 people in Karenni and the neighbouring Districts. This is the Burmese name. The people themselves use 'Kaya'.
Kargand	IV	...	343	Another name for Burgandī (292).
Karhādī	466	2,000	...	VII	...	61, 63, 115	A form of the Konkani Standard dialect (457) of Mar-āthī (455), spoken in Savantvadi (Bombay).
Karin	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Kanarese (296). Cf. Karāndī.
Kārmālī	11,802	IV	...	27, 29, 32, 70	A form of Santālī (15).
Karum	245	III	iii	181, 262	An Old Kuki language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It is spoken in the Manipur State (Assam).
Kashātī Urdū	Another spelling of Qashātī Urdū, <i>q.v.</i>
Kāshmīrī	399	1,195,902	1,268,854	VIII	ii	2, 3, 133 (compared with Khōwār), 149, 233, 241 (linguistic classification).	A language of the Dard Group of the Dardic or Pisācha languages. Spoken in Kashmir.
Kāshmīrī, Standard Dialect.	400	1,039,964	...	VIII	ii	11 (L.), 234, 254 (Grammar), 488 (L.)	
Kashāwārī	401	7,464	...	VIII	ii	233, 234, 342, 488 (L.)	A dialect of Kāshmīrī (399) spoken in Kashāwār (Kishtwar).
Kasrānī	368	X	...	331, 405ff.	A form of the Eastern Dialect (365) of Balōchī (361) spoken in Dera Ismail Khan (N.-W. Frontier Province). The word is also spelt Qasrānī and Qaizārānī. The latter word is said to mean 'Imperial.'
Kasuva	290	316	...	IV	...	299, 332	A dialect of Tamil (385), spoken by Kasuvās in the Nilgiris (Madras). The word is also spelt Kasuba.

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Kaswār	See Kuswār.
Kātakkan	The name of a Madras tribe speaking a corrupt form of Malayālam (293).
Kaṭārī	The form of Marāṭhī (455) spoken by Kaṭārīs of the Deccan.
Kāṭhairā	744	127,957	...	IX	ii	31, 178	A form of the Central Eastern dialect (740) of Rājasthānī (712), spoken in Jaipur State.
Kāthē	III	iii	20	Another name for Meithei (206).
Kaṭhēr Mewāṭī	758	193,300	...	IX	ii	44	A form of the North-Eastern dialect (753) of Rājasthānī (712), spoken in Alwar State.
Kaṭhēriyā	IX	i	316	A form of North-Western Braj Bhākhā (597) spoken in Budaon (U. P.).
Kāthī	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Gujarātī (652) spoken in Broach (Bombay).
Kāṭhiyāwādī	666	2,596,000	...	IX	ii	425, 461 (L.)	A dialect of Gujarātī (652) spoken in Kathiawar.
Kāthōḍī	VII	...	2, 65, 130	Another name for Kātkarī (471). Spoken by Kāthōḍīs, a forest tribe of Kolaba and Khandesh (Bombay).
Kāthōli	IX	iii	157	A dialect of Gujarātī (652) reported from Khandesh without particulars. Possibly the same as Kāthōḍī (see above), which, however, is a dialect of Marāṭhī (455).
Kathrī	Another way of writing Khatrī, <i>q.v.</i>
Katī	An alternative name for Baṣṭhālī (379). See Addenda Majora p. 247.
Katiā or Katiyāī	488	18,700	...	VII	...	2 (Katiyā), 219, 319.	A form of the Central Provinces Dialect (476) of Marāṭhī (455), spoken in Chhindwara and Narsinghpur (C. P.).
Katiyāī (1)	VII	...	319	See the preceding.
Katiyāī (2)	768	18,000	...	IX	ii	53, 288	A form of the Mālvi Dialect (760) of Rājasthānī (712) spoken in Chhindwara (C. P.).
Kātkarī or Kāthōḍī	471	76,700	...	VII	...	65, 130	A form of the Konkan Standard Dialect (457) of Marāṭhī (455), spoken by Kātkarīs of Thana (Bombay) and the vicinity.
				IX	iii	108	
				VII	...	130	Also called Kātvāḍī.
Katlang	III	iii	59	A form of Jangshēn (210).
Katurr	A form of Palaung (4) reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey to be spoken by 5,959 people in the Tawnpeng Northern Shan State. It is also called Omyerr and Namsan.
Kātvāḍī	VII	...	130	Another name for the Kātkarī or Kāthōḍī (471) form of Marāṭhī (455). See Kātkarī.
Katwān	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a Bhil language spoken in Khandesh (Bombay).
Kaukadan	2595	...	9	A Kuki-Chin language reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 537 people in Akyab.
Kaungtso	223a	...	57	A Kuki-Chin language reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 650 people in Northern Arakan.
Kaungtu	A Kuki-Chin language reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 200 people in Northern Arakan. Probably the same as Anu (258).
Kaw	III	iii	383	Another name for Aka (276).
Kawalkarī	A form of Hindōstānī (582) spoken by Hindōstānī Kumbārs in Chanda (C. P.).
Kāwārī!	VII	...	386	Another name for Kamārī (493).
Kawng-Sawng	A form of Zayein (41), <i>q.v.</i>
Kawri	A form of Kachin (203), <i>q.v.</i>
Kaya	The same as Karenni (40), <i>q.v.</i> This is the name used by the people themselves.
Kāyali	IX	iii	157	A form of Bhili (677) spoken in the Satpuras by about 25,000 people. It is also found in West Khandesh.
Kāyasthī (1)	VII	...	62, 93	Another name for the Parbhī form (458) of the Konkan Standard Dialect (457) of Marāṭhī (455).

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Kāyasthī (2)	453	500	...	VIII	i	11, 183, 307	A form of the Kachchhī Dialect (451) of Sindhī (445), spoken in Cutch (Bombay).
Kayāti	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Marāṭhī (455) spoken in Khandesh.
Kayetthīn	An unclassified language reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 400 people in Northern Arakan.
Kazi	III	i	72	A name sometimes given to Bhōṭiā of Tibet or Tibetan (58).
Kebrat	Said to be a form of Bārā (127). Not identified.
Kēchī	X	...	385	A form of Makrānī Balōchī (363).
'Keepgen'	III	iii	59	A form of Thādo (207).
Kehenā	157	6,490	...	III	ii	205, 220, 246 (L.).	A dialect of Angāmī Nāgā (154) spoken in the Naga Hills (Assam).
Kekawngdu	A form of Yinbaw (38) spoken in the Southern Shan States.
Keonthali	Another spelling of Kiūṭhālī, <i>q.v.</i>
Kērā Bengali	V	i	20	The corrupt Bengali (529) spoken by Bengali settlers in Orissa.
Kera-Uraon	IV	...	79	A form of Muṇḍārī (16).
Kēwaṭī	VII	...	248	A mixture of Baghēlī (559) and Nāgpurī Marāṭhī (478) spoken by a few people in Nagpur (C. P.).
Kozhāmā	165	1,620	5,238	III	ii	193, 203, 241, 247 (L.).	A language of the Western Nāgā group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It is spoken in the Naga Hills.
Khāḍī	Reported in the 1911 Bombay Census Report as a Gipsy language spoken in Surat and Rewakantha. Not identified.
Khāḍirī	Another name for Bāngarā (588). The language of the Khāḍir, see Vol. IX, Pt. i, p. 66.
Khai-mī	III	iii	347	Another spelling of Khamī (257).
Khairā	IV	...	107	Another spelling of Kōḍā (19).
Khairāpī	723	228,264	...	IX	ii	78, 85	A form of the Mārwarī Dialect (713) of Rājasthānī (712), spoken by Minās in the south-west of Jaipur State and the neighbouring parts of the Bundi and Mewar States.
Khajuna	VIII	ii	551	Another name for Burnshaskī (850). This is the name used by the races neighbouring on Hunza-Nagar.
Kha-kaw	Another name for Aka (276), <i>q.v.</i> Cf. Kaw.
Khaked	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Dakhinī Hindōstānī (587) used in Kanara.
Khaku	Another name for Kachin (203), <i>q.v.</i>
Khala	An unclassified language, reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey to be probably a Wa (5) form of speech, spoken (with Khalam) by 4,000 people in the Kēng-tūng Southern Shan State.
Khalam	An unclassified language, reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey to be probably a Wa (5) form of speech, spoken (with Khala) by 4,000 people in the Kēng-tūng Southern Shan State. In the Census of 1921 it is classed under Wa.
Khāling	104	III	i	343 (Vocab.), 370	A dialect of Khambū (87), spoken in the upper valleys of Nepal.
Khalōṭī	VI	...	24	Another name for Chhattīsgarhī (572).
Khalṭāhī	VI	...	24, 206	Another name for Chhattīsgarhī (572), as spoken in a part of Balaghat (C. P.).
Khaman	A form of Mishmī (126), spoken in Putao (Burma).
Khambū (1)	87	41,490	3,066	III	i	173, 276, 316	A language of the Eastern Pronominalized Himalayan Group of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It is mainly spoken in Nepal. The Survey figures include those for Rāi or Jimdār (88).
Khambū (2)	89	III	i	276, 316, 340	There are numerous Khambū dialects, all spoken in Nepal. The numbers of their several speakers are therefore unknown.

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Khami, Khwē-myī, or Kumi.	357	14,626	27,346	III	iii	3, 10 (Comparative Vocab.), 347, 361 (L.).	A Southern Chin language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It is spoken in the Chittagong Hill Tracts (Bengal) and in Arakan (Burma). According to the Burma Linguistic Survey it is spoken by 19,527 people in Akyab and Northern Arakan.
Khams Dialect	See Bhōtā of Khams.
Khāmti	52	4,005	9,866	II	...	63, 141	A Tai language spoken in Assam (mostly in Lakhimpur) and beyond the eastern frontier of that Province. In the Census of 1921, the word is spelt 'Kāmti.'
Khāmti, Standard . .	53	2,930	...	II	...	141, 214 (L.)	
Khamu, Khamuk, or Khmu.	7a	...	203	A Mōn-Khmēr language spoken, according to the Burma Linguistic Survey, by about 30 settlers in Salween and Amherst. The classification as Mōn-Khmēr is that of that Survey, where the name is spelt Hkamuk. Cf. Linguistic Survey of India, Vol. II, p. 1. Cf. Mōng Lwe.
Khāndēsi	707	1,253,066	213,272	VII IX	... iii	2, 43 1, 208, 208 (Grammar), 237 (L.).	A language allied, on the one side, to Bhili (677), and, on the other, to Marāṭhī (455). It is spoken in Khandesh (Bombay) and the neighbourhood. The Survey figures are the more correct.
Khāndēsi, Standard . .	708	817,736	...	IX	iii	208, 237 (L.)	
Khangoi	201	500	...	III	ii	463, 472, 481 (L.).	A dialect of Tāngkhal (198) spoken in Manipur State (Assam). The Survey figures are doubtful.
Khanung	277a	...	64	Another name for Nung (277a), <i>q.v.</i>
Khār'wā	673	IX	ii	437, 461 (L.)	A dialect of Gujarāṭi (652), spoken by Musalmān Khār'wās in Kathiawar (Bombay).
Khari	III	ii	265, 271	A name sometimes given to Āo (166).
Khariā (1)	IV	...	406, 410, 427, 436.	A name sometimes wrongly given to Kurukh.
Khariā (2)	27	72,172	137,476	IV	...	21, 190, 242 (L.)	A Muṇḍā language spoken in Bankura (Bengal) and the south of Chota Nagpur (Bihar and Orissa).
Khariā-ṭhār	534	2,298	...	V	i	19, 69, 90	A form of the Western Dialect (531) of Bengali (529) spoken by Khariās in Manbhum (Bihar and Orissa).
Khari Bōli	IX	i	291	A name given to Braj Bhākhā (592) in the east of the Agra District (U. P.). Also a common name for Hindostāni (582).
Khārvā or Khārvi	Another spelling of Khār'wā, <i>q.v.</i>
Kharwari	V	ii	186	A form of Southern Standard Bhojpuri (520) spoken in Shahabad.
Kharvarian or Khervarian.	See Khervarian.
Khaśa	IX	iv	2	The Khaśa language and people.
Khāsi	8	177,293	204,103	II	...	4, 38 (L.)	A somewhat independent language forming a Group by itself of the Mōn-Khmēr Branch of the Austro-Asiatic languages. It is spoken in the Khasi and Jaintia Hills (Assam).
Khāsi, Standard . . .	9	113,190	...	II	...	6	The Standard Dialect of Khāsi.
Khas-kurā, Eastern Pahārī, or Naipālī.	781 782	143,721	279,715	IX IX	i iv	xiii 1, 17, 18, 21 (Grammar), 82 (L.).	A language of the Pahārī Group of the Inner Indo-Aryan languages, spoken in Nepal, and by Gorkhā troops in India.
Khasparjiyā	786	75,930	...	IX	iv	109, 180 (Grammar), 354 (L.).	A sub-dialect of the Kumaoni dialect (785) of Central Pahārī (784), spoken in Almora (U. P.).
Khasi	Incorrect for 'Khāsi,' <i>q.v.</i>
Khatak Sub-Dialect . .	350	X	...	65, 66	A form of the South-Western Dialect (348) of Paṣṭō (337), spoken by Khataks in Peshawar, Kohat, and Attock (N.-W. Frontier Province), and Mianwali (Panjab).
Khatōlā	614	891,200	...	IX	i	37, 457	A form of the Bundēli Dialect (610) of Western Hindī (581), spoken in Bundelkhand.
Khatri	IX	ii	447	Another name for Paṭ'gūli (674).
Khatṭā	V	ii	146, 147	A form of Eastern Magahī (518).
Khatṭāhī	V	ii	146, 147	Ditto.
Khatṭis of Attock, Dialect of.	VIII	i	449	Probably a form of North-Eastern Lāhndā (436).

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Khayrā	IV	...	107	Another name for Kōdā (19).
Khe	The Shān word for Chinese.
Khe-hsa	See Khe-s'a.
Khelma	234	III	iii	192	A dialect of Hallām (232) spoken in North Cachar (Assam). The Survey figures include also those for the Standard Dialect of Hallām.
Khe-long	A name used in the Shan States for Yūnnaese.
Khendrōi	IV	...	407	Another name for Kurukh (305).
Khe-pok	See Miao.
Khērā Karā	IV	...	30	A name sometimes used for Santālī (15).
Kherwārī	14	2,537,328	3,503,215	IV	...	21, 27, 28	A Munda language spoken in Chota Nagpur (Bihar and Orissa) and the neighbouring country. It includes Santālī (15), Mundaī (16), Hō (20), and several other dialects.
Kherwarian or Khar-warian.	IV	...	8	A name used by some for the Munda languages.
Khe-s'a	Another name for Maingtha (260).
Khētrāni or Khētrānki .	430	14,581	...	VIII	i	240, 372	A corrupt form of Lahndā (415), spoken in Thal-Chotiali (Baluchistan). The Survey figures include also those for Jāfiri (431).
Khāngam	III	iii	59	A form of Thādo (207).
Khmu	II	...	1	Another name for Khamuk, <i>q.v.</i>
Khōdi	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of 'Hindi' spoken in the Panch Mahals and Khandesh.
Khoibū	III	ii	472	A form of Maring (202).
Khoirāo	188	15,000	1,503	III	ii	193, 379, 424, 433 (L.).	A Naga-Bodo language of the Naga Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It is spoken in Manipur State (Assam). The Survey figures were admittedly a very rough estimate.
Khoja	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Kachchhi (451).
Khond	IV	...	457	Incorrect for Kandh, another name for Kai (308).
Khongoe	Another spelling of Khangoi, <i>q.v.</i>
Khongzāi	208	20,000	...	III	iii	59, 88 (L.).	A dialect of Thādo (207), spoken in Manipur State (Assam). It is also a Meithei (206) name for Thādo generally. The name is also spelt Khongjai.
Khoṭṭāi or Hindi	V	ii	31, 170	A corrupt form of Eastern Magahī (518), spoken in Malda (Bengal).
Khoṭṭā Baṅgalā	V	i	69, 86	A name given to the impure forms of Western Bengali (531) and especially to Sarāki (533).
Khjwār, Chitrālī, or Arniyā.	330	...	121	VIII	ii	2, 11 (L.), 133, 144 (L.).	A language of the Dardic or Pisācha Branch of the Aryan languages. It is spoken in Chitral and in a part of Yasin. It forms a group by itself. The Census figures are accidental.
Khugnān or Khugni	X	...	455, 466	Another name for Shighni (371).
Khulung-Mathun	III	ii	333	A form of Mutoniā (176).
Khu-mi	III	iii	347	Another spelling of Khami (257).
Khūn	47	...	33,210	A Tai language, not spoken in those parts of India that were subject to the operations of this Survey. Under the name of Hkūn it is reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 42,378 people in the Shan States, nearly all of whom were in the Southern Shan State of Kengtūng.
Khulung	A form of Taungthu (36), reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey, where it is spelt Hkanlong, as spoken in the Southern Shan States.
Khunung	Another name for Nung (277a), <i>q.v.</i>
Khwē-myī	III	iii	347	Another name for Khami (257), <i>q.v.</i> It means 'dog's tail,' and is a Burmese nickname.
Khwombu	III	i	316	A dialectic form of the name Khambū (87).

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Khyang, Chyang, or Shō	256	100 (95,599)	107	III	iii	3, 10 (Comparative Vocab.), 331, 360-1 (L.).	A Southern Chin language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. Spoken in the Chittagong Hill Tracts (Bengal) and the Arakan Yoma (Burma). The figures in parenthesis are those of the Burma Census of 1891. See note to No. 256 in Appendix 1.
Khyau	Another spelling of Kyan, <i>q.v.</i>
Khyangtha	III	iii	379	Another spelling of Chaungtha, <i>q.v.</i>
Khyeng	III	iii	331	Another spelling of Khyang, <i>q.v.</i>
Khyin	Another spelling of Chin, <i>q.v.</i>
Kiao	A name used in the Southern Shan States for Annamese, <i>q.v.</i>
Kili-Dübēri Jīb	412	VIII	ii	522	A form of the Maiā dialect (411) of Kōhistanī (407) spoken in the Indus Kohistan.
Kinār-kī Bōli	A name used in Jalaun (U. P.) for the form of Bundēli (610) spoken on the banks of the Jamna towards the north-east of the District. The name has the same meaning, 'the language of the river-bank,' as Tirhāri (<i>cf.</i> 562).
Kiou-ize	The Chinese name for Nang (277 <i>e</i>), <i>q.v.</i>
Kir	IX	ii	18	A form of the Mārāwī Dialect (713) of Rājasthānī (713), spoken in Narsingpur (C. P.).
Kirad	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Urdū (585) spoken in Poona (Bombay).
Kirānī	325	X	...	452	A form of the Dēhwāri Dialect (332) of Persian (331), spoken in Baluchistan.
Kirāntī	233	III	i	274	A name sometimes applied to the Pronominalized Himalayan Group of Tibeto-Himalayan languages, <i>q.v.</i>
Kirārī	628	4,750	...	IX	i	550, 554, 557	A form of the Bundēli Dialect (610) of Western Hindi (581), spoken by Kirārīs in the Chhindwara district (C. P.).
Kiristāv	460	25,500	...	VII	...	61, 62, 83	A form of the Konkan Standard Dialect (457) of Marāṭhī (455) used by Native Christians in Thana (Bombay).
Kirni	827	3,938	...	IX	iv	374, 549, 610	A form of the Kiūthālī dialect (821) of Western Pahārī (814), spoken in the Simla Hills (Panjab).
Kirsānī	A form of Rājasthānī (712) reported from Indore State. Not since identified.
Kisān	IV	...	107	'The language of cultivators.' Hence, another name for Kōḍā (19).
				IV	...	407, 410, 427, 428, 430, 432, 434, 436, 440, 442.	Also, another name for Kurukh (305).
Kishanganjiā	V	i	139	Another name for Siripurīā (541).
Kishangarhī	748	116,700	...	IX	ii	31, 188	A form of the Central Eastern Dialect (740) of Rājasthānī (713), spoken in Kishangarh State (Rajputana) and the vicinity.
Kishtwārī	VIII	ii	342	Incorrect for Kashtawārī (401), <i>q.v.</i>
Kiūthālī	821	188,763	...	IX	iv	549, 550	A dialect of Western Pahārī (814) spoken in the Simla Hills.
Kiūthālī, Eastern	IX	iv	593	A form of Simla Sirājī (824).
Kiūthālī, Standard	822	43,577	...	IX	iv	550 (Vocab. and Gramm.), 628 (L.).	Spoken in the country round Simla.
Klaishun	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a dialect of Lai (319) spoken in the Chin Hills. The number of speakers is not stated. It may be merely the name of a village.
Klung-klang	III	iii	115	Another name for Tlantlang (221).
Klongshai	III	iii	126	The Arakan name for Lakher (223).
Klunlong	A dialect of Taungthu (36) spoken in Thaton District (Burma).

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Kob	A dialect of Shān (49) spoken by a few people in Assam. Not dealt with in this Survey.
Köch (1)	142	10,300	16,165	III	ii	68, 95, 136 (L.)	A language of the Bārā Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. Spoken in the Garo Hills and Goalpara (Assam) and Dacca (Bengal).
Köch (2)	540	65,000	...	V	i	19, 119, 135	A form of the Northern Dialect (538) of Bengali (529), spoken in Malda (Bengal). It is a curious fact that its grammar strongly resembles that of Oriyā (502).
Köchi	828	51,882	...	IX	iv	549, 613	A form of the Kiūthali Dialect (821) of Western Pahāri (814), spoken in Bashahr State, Simla Hills (Panjab).
Kōdā (1)	IV	...	83	A name used in Birbhūm (Bengal) for Muṇḍāri (16).
Kōdā (2)	IV	...	406, 410, 427	A name sometimes wrongly given to Kurukh (305).
Kōdā (3)	19	8,949	19,690	IV	...	21, 28, 107	A dialect of Kherwāri (14), spoken in Western Bengal, South Chota Nagpur, and North Orissa. The name is also spelt Kōrā.
Koḍagu or Coorgi	301	37,218	39,995	IV	...	286	A Dravidian language spoken in Coorg.
Kōḍā-kū	See Kōrā-kū.
Kōḍāri	IV	...	107	A name used in Sarguja State for Kōdā (19), <i>q.v.</i>
Kōhāṭi	VIII	i	242, 432, 450, 458, 522 (L.)	A name given to the form of North-Eastern Lahndā (436) spoken in Kohat (N.-W. Frontier Province).
Kōhstāni	407	...	6,862	VIII	ii	2, 8, 11 (L.), 149, 507.	A language of the Dard Group of the Dardic or Pisācha languages, spoken in the Swat and Indus Kohistan.
Kōhli	298	A corrupt Marāṭhi (455). It is a caste-dialect of Chanda (C. P.) and is identical with Kun'baū (484), <i>q.v.</i>
Kōi	316	51,127	...	IV	...	472, 476, 528, 541, 545, 546.	A dialect of Gōṇḍi (313), spoken in Chanda and Bastar (C. P.), and Vizagapatam and Godavari (Madras).
Koilong	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Malayālam (293). Compare Coilong, which, in the same Report, is reported as a form of Kōhkaṇi (494).
Koireng	III	iii	334	A corrupt form of the name 'Kolhreng' (239), <i>q.v.</i>
Kol or Kōl	IV	...	7, 28	Connotation of the word as a language-name.
				IV	...	445	A name sometimes wrongly given to Kurukh (305).
				IV	...	70	A name sometimes used for the Kārmāli form of Santālī (15).
				IV	...	82	A name sometimes used for Muṇḍāri (16).
				IV	...	116	A name sometimes used for Hō (20).
Kōl	IV	...	7	Hodgson spoke of the great Kōl language, of which Santālī (15), Bhumij (17), Kurukh (305), and Muṇḍāri (16) were, according to him, dialects.
Kōlāmī	309	23,295	23,989	IV	...	286, 474, 561	A language of the Intermediate Group of the Dravidian family. It is spoken in Wardha, Amraoti, and Wun (Berar).
Kōlāmī, Standard	310	23,100	...	IV	...	561	
Kolarian	IV	...	8	A name formerly used to designate the Muṇḍā languages.
Kolavana	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Marāṭhi (455) spoken in Poona. Not since identified.
Kolavi	A Gipsy language reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as spoken in Sholapur. Perhaps the same as Korava (287).
Kōlhāṭi	862	2,367	...	XI	...	2, 5, 6, 71	A Gipsy language (854) spoken by vagrants in Chanda (C. P.), Berar, and the Bombay Deccan.
Kolhreng	239	750	900	III	iii	3, 181, 234, 294 (L.)	An Old Kuki language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. 'Kolhreng,'—not 'Kolrēn' or 'Koireng,' as given in the Survey,—is the correct spelling of the name of this language. The Survey figures are admittedly a rough estimate. The language is spoken in the Manipur State (Assam).
Kōli	Variant spellings of Hō or Kōl (20) and of Kuṭni (833).

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Koḷi	459	189,186	...	VII	...	61, 62, 78, 392 (L.).	A form of the Konkani Standard dialect (457) of Marāṭhī (455), spoken in Bombay Town and Island, Thana, Kolaba, and Janjira (Bombay).
Koḷi-Pālus Sub-Dialect .	413	VIII	ii	522	A form of the Maiyā dialect (411) of Kōhistanī (407), spoken in the Indus Kohistan.
Kolrēn	III	iii	334	Incorrect for Kolhreng (239), <i>q.v.</i>
Kolya	III	ii	424	Another name for Khoirāo (188).
Kōm	240	750	2,855	III	iii	3, 181, 244, 294 (L.).	An Old Kuki language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It is spoken in Manipur State (Assam). The Survey figures are admittedly a rough guess.
Kōmṭāu	331	3,827	...	IV	...	577, 594	A dialect of Telugu (319) spoken by Kōmṭis and other tribes in the C. P.
Kon or Kun	An unclassified (probably Kuki-Chin) language reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 250 people in North Arakan.
Koṇḍa, Koṇḍadora, Koṇḍakāpu, Kōṭṭu, or Dora.	A form of Kui (308), reported in the 1891 Madras Census Report, p. 190.
Konga or Kongaḍi	The Kanarese name for any Dravidian language not locally understood (generally Tamil (285)).
Kongon	III	ii	331	A name sometimes used for Angwānku (173).
Konkan Standard	457	2,350,817	...	VII	...	61, 65 (Gr.)	A dialect of Marāṭhī (455), spoken in the north of the Konkani.
Kōnkanī (1)	494	1,565,391	406,808	VII	...	1, 163, 167 (Gr.), 188 (as spoken by Sarasvat Brāhmins in Karwar), 248, 392 (L.).	A dialect of Marāṭhī (455), spoken in the south of the Konkani. It is also called Gōmāntakī or Goanese. The Survey figures include speakers of the dialect in Portuguese India.
Kōnkanī, Standard	495	683,650
Kōnkanī (2)	691	232,613	...	IX	iii	6, 108, 130	A dialect of Bhili (677), spoken in Navsari of Baroda, Surat, Surgana, Nasik, and Khandesh (Bombay).
Kōnkanī Musalmāns, Dialect of.	VII	...	82	A form of the Koḷi Sub-Dialect (459) of the Konkani Standard Dialect (457) of Marāṭhī (455).
Konni	See Kunni.
Konyak	A name used in the 1921 Assam Census Report for the Nāgā languages spoken in the Konyak territory of the Naga Hills. It includes Tamli (174) and Tableng (173).
Koopooee	III	ii	416	Another name for Kabui or Kapwī (187).
Kora	IV	...	318	Another name for Korava (287).
Kōṛā	IV	...	107	Another spelling of Kōḍā (19).
Koracha	IV	...	318	Another name for Korava (287).
Koraga	A secret Dravidian language of Madras. Probably a dialect of Tuḷu (302).
Kōṛā-kū	IV	...	147	Another name for Korwā (25). Also spelt Kōḍākū.
Korama	Another name for Korava (287).
Kōṛā-mudi Thār	IV	...	107	Another name for Kōḍā (19).
Kōrānti	IV	...	135	Another name for the Brijīā form (24) of Asurī (22). A dialect of Kherwārī (14).
Korava	287	55,116	...	IV XI	...	299, 318 1	A dialect of Tamil (285), spoken by Koravas, a vagrant tribe of Madras. The Survey figures include those for Yerukala (288) which is probably the same language.
Kōrchari	IV	...	318	Another name for Korava (287).
Korchī	IV	...	318	Ditto.
Korkū	Another spelling of Kūrkū (26), <i>q.v.</i>
Kōṛ-kū	IV	...	143	Another name for Korwā (25).
Kōrō Pārsi	IV	...	167	Another name for Kūrkū (26).
Korṭhā	V	ii	146, 147	A form of Eastern Magahi (518).
Korvī	IV	...	318, 646 (L.)	Another name for Korava (287).

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Korwā	25	30,327	21,655	IV	..	21, 28, 147, 241 (L.).	A dialect of Khorwāri (14), spoken in Chota Nagpur (Bihar and Orissa), and South Midnapur (Bengal).
Kōrwā	IV	...	410	A name sometimes wrongly given to Kurukh (305).
Korwāri	IV	...	148	Another name for Korwā (25).
				VI	...	116	
Kōsalī	VI	...	9	Another name for Awadhī (558).
Kōshir ^u	VIII	ii	233	Another name for Kāshmirī (399).
Kōshṭī (1)	482	2,900	...	VII	...	218, 244, 248, 291.	A form of the Berar Dialect (476) of Marāṭhī (455). It is spoken by the Kōshṭīs, or weavers, of Berar.
Kōshṭī (2)	629	14,692	...	IX	i	88, 547, 550, 560, 564.	A form of the Bundēli Dialect (610) of Western Hindī (581), spoken by Kōshṭīs in the C. P.
Kōta	304	1,301	1,192	IV	...	286	A Dravidian language, spoken in the Nilgiri Hills (Madras).
Kōṭālī	692	40,000	...	IX	iii	6, 108, 168	A dialect of Bhīli (677) spoken in the Satpuras of Khandesh (Bombay).
Kotang	III	iii	59	A form of Thādo (207).
Koṭgarhī	Incorrect spelling of Koṭgurū, <i>q.v.</i>
Koṭgurū	IX	iv	648	Another name for Śōdōchī (830).
Kōṭil, Kōṭīlī	Another spelling of Kōṭālī (692), <i>q.v.</i>
Kotiyā	A Madras caste-name, used as a synonym for Oriyā (502).
Kōṭkhālī	IX	iv	593	A form of Simla Sirājī (824).
Kōṭū	Another name for Koṇḍa, <i>q.v.</i> , <i>i.e.</i> , Kui (308), spoken in Vizagapatam (Madras) by Kōṭāvāṇḍlu, who are here a tribe of Koṇḍadoras.
Kōṭvālī	Reported in the 1921 Bombay Census Report as a Bhil dialect spoken in the Eastern parts of the Surat District and Agency. Also called Viṭīmā or Viṭōliā. <i>Cf.</i> Kōṭālī.
Kōyā	IV	...	541	Another name for Kōi (316).
Kahatrī	A name used for Hindōstānī (583) in Madras, where the so-called Kshatriyas speak that language.
Kuchbandhī	861	XI	...	2, 119	A Gipsy language, spoken in Bahraich (U. P.).
Kuchu	III	ii	68	Another name for the Ātong dialect (137) of Gārō (134).
Kuḍālī	496	90,000	...	VII	...	61, 163, 194	The form of Marāṭhī (455) used by all Hindūs, except Brāhmins, of the country between Goa and Rajapur in Ratnagiri (Bombay). It is also called Mālvaṇī (VII, 194).
Kudi	Said to be a form of Bārā (127). Not identified.
Kudiyā	Another name for Koḍagu (301).
Kudo	Another name for Kadu (281). Probably only a misspelling.
Kudubī	The same as Kōṇkaṇī (494). A Madras caste-name.
Kui, Kandhī, or Khond	308	318,592	483,668	IV	...	286, 457, 648 (L.).	A Dravidian language of the Intermediate Group. Spoken in Orissa (Khondmals, Angul, Patna, and Kalahandi) and Madras (Gumsar and Vizagapatam). The Survey figures do not include the speakers in Madras, as the Survey did not extend to that Presidency.
Kuki-Chin Group	567,625	796,314	III III	i iii	2 1, 8, 15	A group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. Many of the languages of this group are spoken only in Burma, which was not subject to the operations of this Survey.
Kuki-languages	III	iii	2	
Kuki, New	III	iii	2	See New Kuki.
Kuki, Old	III	iii	2	See Old Kuki.
Kulī	Reported in the 1891 C. P. Census Report as a form of Oriyā (502). Not identified.
Kulrang	IV	...	343	Another name for Burgeñī (292).

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Kulu Group	832	84,631	126,793	IX	iv	374, 669	A Group of dialects of Western Pahārī (814), spoken in Kulu (Panjab). The Census figures include also the speakers of the Satlaj Group (829).
Kulubī	IX	iv	669	Another name for Kulūi (833).
Kulūi	833	54,030	...	IX	iv	374, 669, 670 (Gr.), 705 (L.).	A language of the Kulu Group of dialects (832) of Western Pahārī (814). It is spoken in Kulu (Panjab).
Kūlung	101	III	i	343 (Voc.), 366	A dialect of Khambū (87), spoken in the upper valleys of Nepal.
Kuluvara	IV	...	318	Another name for Korava (287).
Kulvāḍī	VII	...	52	A corrupt form of Standard Marāṭhī (456), spoken by Kuṇ'bis in Dharwar (Bombay).
Kumaiyā	796	37,696	...	IX	iv	109, 224	A form of the Kumaunī dialect (785) of Central Pahārī (784), spoken in Almora (U. P.).
Kumaunī	785	436,788	...	IX	iv	1, 103, 112 (Gr.), 253 (Kumaunī-English Voc.), 367 (English-Kumaunī (Voc.), 354 (L.).	A dialect of Central Pahārī (784) spoken in Almora and Nainī Tal Districts (U. P.).
Kumbar	A Coorg name for Kanarese (296).
Kumbhār Sub-Dialects, or Kumbhārī (1).	630	4,980	...	IX	i	88, 547, 550, 564, 565.	A corrupt form of the Bundēli Dialect (610) of Western Hindī (581) spoken by Kumbhārs in Chhindwara (C. P.) and Buldana (Berar).
Kumbhārī (2)	483	4,500	...	VII IX	... i	218, 248, 295 565	A corrupt form of the Berar Dialect (476) of Marāṭhī (455) spoken by Kumbhārs in Akola (Berar).
Kumbhārī (3)	570	30	...	VI	...	19, 174, 180	A corrupt form of the Baghēli Dialect (559) of Eastern Hindī (557) spoken by Kumbhārs in Bhandara (C. P.).
Kumbhārī	Another spelling of Kumbhārī, <i>q.v.</i>
Kumī	III	iii	347	Another name for Khami (257).
Kun	III	iii	329	A language spoken in Arakan, if the word is a language-name, and not that of a tribe. It is referred to, but not described, in this Survey. It is mentioned in the Burma Linguistic Survey under the name of 'Kon,' <i>q.v.</i>
Kun'bāu	484	110,150	...	VII	...	218, 298	A form of the Central Provinces Dialect (476) of Marāṭhī (455). It is a caste-dialect of the Kuṇ'bis of Chanda (C. P.), and is identical with Kōhī, <i>q.v.</i> It is simply a corrupt Marāṭhī.
Kuṇ'bāu or Kuṇ'bī (1) .	709	400,000	...	IX	iii	203, 221, 237 (L.).	A dialect of Khāndēsi (707), spoken by Kuṇ'bis of Khandesh (Bombay).
Kuṇ'bī (2)	461	368,000	...	VII	...	1, 61, 62, 84	A variety of the Konkani Standard Dialect (457) of Marāṭhī (455) spoken by Kuṇ'bis in the Bombay Presidency. It is merely the ordinary Konkani Standard with local variations.
				VII	...	232, 233, 235, 393.	In Berar (Akola and Buldana) this name is used for the Varhādi Dialect (477) of Marāṭhī when used by the uneducated.
Kuṇḍrī (1)	VI	...	152	A form of the Jūar Sub-Dialect (565) of Baghēli (559) spoken in Banda (U. P.).
Kuṇḍrī (2)	617	11,000	...	IX	i	87, 437, 479, 527	A form of Bundēli (610) spoken in Hamirpur (U. P.).
Kunhawt	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of Palaung (4) spoken by 1,148 people in the Northern Shan States.
Kanjāḥ	VIII	ii	551	A name for Burushaskī (850) which is used in Yarkand.
Kunloi	A form of Palaung (4), <i>q.v.</i>
Kunlong	A form of Taungthū (36), <i>q.v.</i>
Kunni or Kouni	Another name for Karenbyu (33), <i>q.v.</i>
Kunsalan	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of Palaung (4) spoken by 10 people in the Möng Long Northern Shan State.
Kupui	Incorrect spelling of Kabui or Kapwī (187), <i>q.v.</i>

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Kuramwārī	Another spelling of Kurumwārī. See Kurumba (299).
Kurariā	Another name for Siripurīā (541). The name of a tribe that speaks the dialect.
Kürkū	26	111,684	120,893	IV	...	21, 167, 242 (L.)	A Mundā language spoken in the Satpura and Mahadeo Hills (C. P. and Berar).
Kurmālī Thār	V	ii	146, 147, 327 (L.)	A form of Eastern Magahī (518) spoken by Kurmis of Hazaribagh, Manbhum, and below the Chota Nagpur Plateau as far south as Morbhanj (Bihar and Orissa).
Kurmī Bhumij	IV	...	94	A form of Bhumij (17) spoken in the Chota Nagpur State of Bonai (Bihar and Orissa).
Kuro	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Kachchhī (451). Not identified.
Kurru	IV	...	318	Another name for Korava (287).
Kurukh or Orāō	305	503,980	865,722	IV	...	286, 406, 647 (L.)	A Dravidian language of the Intermediate Group, spoken in Chota Nagpur (Bihar and Orissa) and to the south.
Kurumālī or Kurmālī	V	ii	31, 140, 172	A form of Eastern Magahī (518). See Kurmālī Thār. The name is pronounced Kurumālī in Morbhanj.
Kurumba or Kurumwārī	299	10,899	...	IV XI	...	363, 396 I	A dialect of Kanarese (296). It is spoken by the Kurumwārs, a wild pastoral tribe of Chanda (C. P.). Its proper home is the Nilgiris (Madras), to which the operations of the Survey did not extend.
Kusik	See Māndē Kusik.
Kūsūnda	108	III	i	399, 403	An Eastern Pronominalized Himalayan Tibeto-Burman language, spoken in the Nepal Himalaya.
Kuswār	IX	iv	19, 83 (L.)	A corrupt form of Khas-kurā, Eastern Pahārī, or Naipālī (781) spoken in Nepal. Also spelt Kaswār.
Kuthārī	3,789	...	IX	iv	495	A name given to the Baghāṭī (820) spoken in Kathar State (Panjab).
Kuthārī-Baghāṭī	1,069	...	IX	iv	495	A name given to the Baghāṭī (820) spoken in Bija State (Panjab).
Kuṭnī	The name of a Gipsy dialect reported from Mysore.
Kwahring Klang	A dialect of Lai (219) reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken in the Chin Hills. The number of speakers is there not stated.
Kwangli	223a	...	3,604	A dialect of Lai (219) reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken in the Chin Hills. The number of speakers is there not stated.
Kwanhai	A form of Palaung (4) reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 6,029 people in the Northern Shan States.
Kwelshin, E, or Mi Err	2,458	A dialect of Lai (219) reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 4,000 people in the Chin Hills and also reported in the All-India Census Report in place of Haka (220), <i>q.v.</i>
Kwe Myi	The same as Khāmī (257), <i>q.v.</i>
Kweshin	III	iii	107	A form of Shunkla (216). <i>Of. Hualngo.</i>
Kwi or Lahu S'i	277	...	3,676	III	iii	383	A language of the Lolo-Mos'o Group of the Tibeto-Burman languages. Kwi is the Wa name of the language. In the Burma Linguistic Survey it is reported to be spoken by 2,500 people in the Southern Shan States.
Kwin-pang	See Tangsir.
Kwoireng or Liyāng	197	5,000	...	III	ii	193, 431, 463, 480 (L.)	A Nāgā-Kuki language of the Nāgā Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It is spoken in Manipur State (Assam). The Survey figures are admittedly a rough estimate.
Kyau or Chaw	241	...	351	III	iii	3, 181, 254	An Old Kuki language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. According to the Burma Linguistic Survey, it is spoken in North Arakan. The correct spelling of the name is probably 'Kyaw.'
Kyaw	See Kyau.
Kyōō or Kyontsū	III	ii	265, 284	A name sometimes given to Lhōṭā (169).
La or Lawa	Another name for Wa (5), reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey.

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Labānā or Labānī	IX	iii	255	Another name for Banjārī or Labhānī (771).
Labānī	IX	iii	255, 297	Another name for Banjārī or Labhānī (771), used in the Panjab.
Labhai	A Madras caste-name, used as a synonym for Tamil (285).
Labein	The same as Yabein, <i>q.v.</i>
Labhānī	IX	iii	255	Another name for Banjārī (771).
Labhānī, of Panjab and Gujarat.	772	23,783	...	IX	iii	259, 297 (Panjab), 309 (Gujarat), 317 (L.).	One of the dialects of Banjārī (771), <i>q.v.</i>
Laccadive	A form of Malayālam (293). It is the language of the Laccadives.
Lād	Another name for Lāḍī (863).
Lāda	A Madras name for Banjārī or Labhānī (771).
Ladakhī	III	i	51	See Bhōṭiā of Ladakh.
Ladar (? Lāḍar)	A Gipsy language reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as spoken in Bijapur and Kanara. The word may be merely the Kanarese plural of Lād.
Ladhāḍī	329	2,122	...	IV	...	473, 637	A Semi-Dravidian Hybrid spoken in Berar.
Lāḍī	863	500	...	XI	...	2, 5, 47	A Gipsy language reported from Berar. It is also called Lād.
Laghārī	A name given to the Balōchī (361) spoken by Laghārīs and northern tribes of the lower Pērajāt and adjacent hills.
Laghmānī	VIII	ii	2, 89	Another name for Pashai or Dēghānī (385).
Lahānī	A Gipsy language reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as spoken in Khandesh and the Panch Mahals. Not since identified. ? a corruption of 'Labhānī,' <i>q.v.</i>
Laharang	Another name for Kanam, <i>q.v.</i> Possibly the same as Lōhōrōng (93).
Lahndā or Western Pañjābī.	415	7,092,781	5,652,264	VIII	i	1, 233	A language of the North-Western Group of the Outer Indo-Aryan languages, spoken in the Western Panjab and the North-West Frontier Province. The Census figures are too low.
Lahndā, North-Eastern Dialects.	436	1,752,755	...	VIII	i	239, 242, 431 (Compared with N.-W. Dialect), 532 (L.).	
Lahndā, North-Western Dialects.	433	881,425	...	VIII	i	239, 241, 431 (Compared with N.-E. Dialects), 541.	
Lahndā, Standard Dialect	416, 417	1,507,837	...	VIII	i	233, 272, 412 (L.).	The purest form of the Standard is that of Shahpur (Panjab) (417), of which the number of speakers is 447,000.
Lahndā-Pañjābī	See Pañjābī-Lahndā.
Lāhōrī	A name given to the Pañjābī (632) of Lahore.
La Hpai	See La Phai.
Lahsa Shān	See Las'a Shān.
La Hta	See La Tha.
Lahu	III	iii	383	A name of Mō-s'o (274), <i>q.v.</i> , reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 18,349 people in the Shan (chiefly the Southern Shan) States. This is the name used by the people themselves.
Lāhulī	See Bhōṭiā of Lahul (62).
Lāhulī of Chamba	See Chamba Lāhulī.
Lahu S'i	III	iii	383	Another name for Kwi (277).
Lai	219	24,550	43,731	III	iii	3, 10 (Comparative Vocab.), 107, 115, 160 (L.).	A Central CI in language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. In the Burma Linguistic Survey, it is reported as spoken by 45,000 people in the Chin Hills. The Census figures are incomplete. The figures of the Linguistic Survey of India do not include speakers in Burma. They refer only to the speakers in the Lushai Hills (Bengal).

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Laiyo or Laizau . . .	223a	...	9,277	A dialect of Lai (219), spoken in the Chin Hills.
Lakan	A form of Karenni (40), <i>q.v.</i>
Lakher, Mara, or Tlongsai	223	1,100	6	III	iii	3, 107, 126	A dialect of Lai (219), spoken in the Lushai Hills (Assam). The tribe speaking it is called Lakher by the Lushais, and Zao by the Chins.
Lakū	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of Bwè (32) spoken in the Southern Shan States.
Lallaing	An unclassified language reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey to be a form of Shandu spoken by 720 people in North Arakan. Shandu is another name for Chin.
Lälung	130	40,160	10,383	III	ii	2, 4, 49, 132 (L.)	A language of the Bodo Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It is spoken in the Assam Valley.
Lama	III	i	72	Another name for Bhōṭiā of Tibet or Tibetan (58).
Lamāṅī	IX	iii	255, 272	Another name for Banjāri or Labhānī (771), used in Nasik and Belgaum (Bombay).
Lambāḍī	IX	iii	255	Another name for the same, used in Southern India.
Lambānī	IX	iii	255	Another name for the same.
Lāmbichhōng	94	III	i	342 (Vocab.), 355	A Khambū (87) dialect spoken in the upper valleys of Nepal.
Lamet	A Mōn-Khmēr language reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 231 people in the Kēng-tūng Southern Shan State. <i>Cf.</i> Linguistic Survey of India, Vol. II, p. 1, where the name is spelt Le-met.
Langkhai	205a	A form of Kachin (203) spoken in Putao.
Langkhe	Another name for Banjōṅī (327).
Langrong	236	6,266	...	III	iii	3, 181, 207, 292 (L.)	An Old Kuki language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It is spoken in Cachar (Assam) and Hill Tippera State.
Langtamē	The Ēmpēo (183) name for Kukis generally.
Langtung	209	5,500	...	III	iii	61	A dialect of Thādo (207), spoken in the Naga Hills (Assam).
Lānpūtī	A form of Ahīrwātī (759) spoken in the Nabha State (Panjab).
Lanten	III	iii	384	A form of Yao (42).
Lao	44	...	3,851	A foreign member of the Tai Group of the Siamese-Chinese Sub-Family. It is reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by about 3,000 people in Salween and Amherst.
La Phai	A dialect of Kachin (203), reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey (where it is spelt La Hpai) as spoken by 180 people in the Northern Shan States. ? the same as Lepai. It is really a tribal name.
Lārī	450	40,000	...	VIII	i	9, 10, 169, 215 (L.)	A dialect of Sindhi (445) spoken in Lower Sind.
Lariā	VI	...	24	Another name for Chhattīsgarhī (573). This is the name used by the Oriyā-speaking population to the east. In Dhenkanal Orissa Tributary State, the name is used for the form of Oriyā (502) spoken by Lariās.
Larkā Kol	IV	...	116	Another name for Hō (20).
Las Bela Sub-Dialect .	369	145,790	...	X	...	330, 331	A form of the Eastern Dialect (365) of Balōchī (361) spoken in Las Bela (Baluchistan). It is a mixed form of speech. The Survey figures include also those for Sind and Bahawalpur (Panjab).
Las'a Shān	Another name for Maingṭiā (266).
Lashi	262	...	16,570	III	ii	502	Classed in the Census of 1911 as a Kachin (203) hybrid. Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 23,368 people in Myitkyina and Northern Shan States. For the correct classification, see Kachin-Burma Hybrids.
				III	iii	382	
Lāsī	449	43,613	...	VIII	i	9, 10, 158, 214 (L.)	A dialect of Sindhi (445), spoken in Las Bela (Baluchistan).

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La Tha	A form of Zaycin (41), <i>q.v.</i> In Burma spelt La Hta.
Lathawng	III	ii	501	A Kachin (203) Tribe.
Lantkaw	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of the Pale Dialect of Palaung (4) spoken by 178 people in Mōng Long Northern Shan State.
Lauklan	Reported in the same as another form of the same Pale, spoken by 602 people in the same State.
Lauklang	Reported in the same as another form of the same Pale, spoken by 466 people in the same State.
Lauklon	Reported in the same as another form of the same Pale, spoken by 719 people in the same State.
Laukman	Reported in the same as another form of the same Pale, spoken by 40 people in the same State.
Laungwaw	A dialect of Maru (263) spoken in Myitkyina (Burma).
Lavāni	Another form of the name Labhāni, <i>i.e.</i> Banjāri (771).
Lawa	Another name for Wa (5), <i>q.v.</i>
Law'he	III	iii	383	A Chinese name for Kwi (277).
Lawi	A form of Yinbaw (32), <i>q.v.</i>
Lawlaw	Another spelling of Lolo, <i>q.v.</i>
Lawngwaw	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as an alternative name for Maru (263), used in Myitkyina.
Lawt'u	259b	...	3,043	A Kuki-Chin language spoken in the Chin Hills.
Ledu	259b	...	2,011	A Kuki-Chin language spoken in Kyaukpyu and Akyab.
Leh Dialect	III	i	52	A form of Bhōtiā of Ladakh (61).
Lem	7a	...	782	An unclassified language, reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as probably a Wa (5) language, spoken by 3,170 people in the Kengtūng Southern Shan State. In the 1921 Census Report it is classed as a l'alaung-Wa language. <i>Cf.</i> Tai-lem.
Le-met	See Lamet.
Lengreng	III	iii	207	Another name for Langrong (236).
Leotkuh-i-wār	X	...	518	Another name for Yūdghā (378).
Lepai	III	ii	500	A Kachin (203) tribe. <i>Cf.</i> La Phai.
Lepcha	III	i	233	Another name for Rōng (118).
Lhārī	XI	...	2, 80	Another name for Myānwālē (866).
Lhoke	III	i	129	Another name for Bhōtiā of Bhutan (69).
Lhōtā or Tsōntsū	169	22,000	18,412	III	ii	193, 265, 284, 293 (L.).	A Central Nāgā language of the Nāgā Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in the Naga Hills (Assam).
Lidang or Lippā	Said to be a dialect of Kanauri (77). Not mentioned in this Survey.
Lisaw or Yawyin	III	ii	502	Described as a Kachin (203) Hybrid. It is really the same as the Lis'aw or Lisu of the Burma Linguistic Survey. See Lisu.
	III	iii	383	
Limbū	85	24,045	23,402	III	i	178, 275, 283	An Eastern Pronominalized Himalayan Tibeto-Burman language, spoken in Darjiling, Sikkim, and Central Nepal.
Lippā	Another name for Lidang, <i>q.v.</i>
Lisu	275	...	13,152	III	iii	383	A form of Lisu (275), <i>q.v.</i>
	A language of the Lolo-Mos'o Group of the Tibeto-Burman languages. In the Burma Linguistic Survey, it is reported to be spoken by 19,326 people in Northern Burma Hill Districts and in the Shan States. Alternative names are Lis'aw and Yawyin.
Liyāng	III	ii	193, 431, 463	Another name for Kwoireng (197), <i>q.v.</i>
Lōbhānū	Another name for Banjāri or Labhāni (771).

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Löbyālī	Another name for Löbhyā (307), <i>q.v.</i>
Lodhāntī or Rāthōrā	613	145,500	...	IX	i	87, 423, 437, 465.	A form of the Bandēli Dialect (610) of Western Hindi (581), spoken in the Jalann and Hamirpur Districts (U. P.).
Lödhi	621	18,600	...	IX	i	88, 547, 548	A form of the Bandēli Dialect (610) of Western Hindi (581), spoken in Bhandara (C. P.).
Lödhiyō kī Bōlī	Another name for Lodhāntī (613).
Lohānā	A name for Sindhi (445) used in Madras. Properly a caste-name.
Löbhyā	807	9,748	...	IX	iv	280, 325	A form of the Garhwālī Dialect (804) of Central Pabāri (784), spoken in Garhwal and Almora.
Loheirh	III	iii	383	A Chinese name for Kwi (377).
Lōhorōng	93	III	i	342 (Vocab.), 352	A dialect of Khambū (87), spoken in Nepal.
Lohtaw	Another spelling of 'Lawt'a' (259b), <i>q.v.</i>
Loi Liu	A form of Palaung (4), reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken in the Ruby Mines District.
Loilong	A form of Zaycin (41), <i>q.v.</i>
Lokar	The same as Lakan, <i>q.v.</i>
Lolo	273	...	769	III	iii	383	A Lolo-Mos'o language spoken in Sze-chwan and Yunnan. A few speakers are found in the Northern Shan States.
Lolo-Mos'o Group	75,686	III	iii	383	A Group of Tibeto-Burman languages spoken in Burma and beyond the frontier, and not dealt with in this Survey. Particulars reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey will be found under the separate languages.
Lōnārī	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Marāṭhī (455) spoken in Satara. Probably the Marāṭhī spoken by people of the Lōnārī caste.
Lōri Chinī	Reported in the 1921 Baluchistan Census Report as the Gipsy slang argot of the Lōris.
Lū	46	...	26,108	A Tai language, reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 17,331 people in the Southern Shan State of Kengtūng.
Ludha	Reported in the 1891 C. P. Census Report as a form of Oriyā (502). Not identified.
Ludhiyāntī	Another spelling of Lodhāntī (613).
Luhūpā or Luppā	III	ii	193, 451, 463	A name sometimes given to Tāngkhul (198).
Lūi	278	III	iii	43	A group of languages reported to be spoken in Manipur State (Assam). Too little is known about it to permit of its being definitely classified. It contains three languages,—Andro (279), Sengmai (279), and Chairel (280). Kadu (281), spoken in Burma, is closely connected with the two first. The connexion of Chairel with the other two is very doubtful.
Lumyang Kuki	III	iii	281	Probably the same as Hirōi-Lamgāng (248).
Lungehrav	An unclassified language reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 500 people in the Chin Hills.
Lūqī	356	X	...	112	A form of the South-Western Dialect (348) of Paṣhtō (337) spoken in Baluchistan.
Luppā	III	ii	193, 431, 463	Another form of the name 'Luhūpā,' <i>q.v.</i>
Lośnōi or Dulien	224	40,539	77,180	III	iii	3, 10 (Comparative Vocab.), 107, 127, 160 (L.).	A Central Chin language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in the Lushai Hills and Cachar (Assam).
Lutkho-i-wār	X	...	518	Incorrect for Loṭkuh-i-wār, <i>i.e.</i> Yūdghā (378).
Lu-tze	Another name for Nung (377a), <i>q.v.</i>
Lwekin	A form of Palaung (4) reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 91 people in the Mōng Long Northern Shan State.
Lyan-lyem	III	iii	109	Another name for Zahao (215).

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Lyente	A dialect of Lai (219), reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken in the Chin Hills. The number of speakers is not stated. It may be merely the name of a village.
Lyng-ngam . . .	10	1,850	...	II	...	4, 17, 38 (L.)	Adi alect of Khāsī (8), spoken in the Khasi and Jaintia Hills (Assam).
Machariā, or Manchariā	864	30	...	XI	...	2, 3	A Gipsy language spoken in the Panjab by a tribe of fowlers from Sind. A mixture of Sindhi (445) and Panjābi (632).
Mā-chi	III	ii	73	Another name for the Āchik or Standard Dialect (135) of Gārō (134).
Madhēsā	527	1,714,036	...	V	ii	42, 44, 300, 329 (L.).	A form of the Bhojpuri Dialect (519) of Bihārī (506) spoken in Champaran (Bihar).
Madrāsā	A name sometimes given to Tamil (285).
Māgadhī	V	ii	30	Another name for Magahī (516).
Magahī	516	6,504,817	...	V	ii	5, 30, 123, 326 (L.).	A dialect of Bihārī (506), spoken in South Bihar and North Chota Nagpur (Bihar and Orissa).
Magahī, Eastern . .	518	313,894	...	V	ii	31, 140, 145	Spoken in the east of the Magahī tract.
Magahī, Standard .	517	5,926,103	...	V	ii	31	
Magamsā	A generic name used among the Bodos for the Nāgā languages (154 ff.).
Magar	Another name for Māgarī (114).
Mag*ri	693	44,500	...	IX	iii	6, 31	A dialect of Bhili (677), spoken in Morwara.
Magari	III	i	206	Another spelling of Māgarī (114).
Māgarī	114	16,979	20,536	III	i	177, 180, 206, 254 (L.).	A Non-Pronominalized Himalayan Tibeto-Burman language, the home of which is in Nepal.
Māghā	The Oriyā (502) spoken by the Māghās of the Orissa Tributary States.
Maghī	III	iii	379	Another name for Arakanese (266).
Maghiā	Another (incorrect) spelling of Magahī (516).
Mah*ri or Mehari	VII	...	331, 350	A form of Hal'bi (490).
Māhārī or Dhēdī .	485	19,000	...	VII	...	218, 248, 300	A form of the Central Provinces Dialect (476) of Marāṭhī (455) spoken by Mahārs in Chanda and Chhindwara (C. P.). In the Bombay Presidency these people speak a dialect called by the same name, but it is the ordinary Konkani Standard Marāṭhī (457) (Vol. VII, p. 157).
Malēsri	A form of Mārwarī (713) spoken in Chanda (C. P.) by Mahēsri Mārwaris.
Māhili	IV	...	74	Another name for the Māhlē form of Santālī (15).
Mahl	501	A dialect of Singhalese (499), spoken in the Maldiv Islands and Minicoy. It is not dealt with in the Survey.
Māhlē or Māhili	20,568	IV	...	27, 29, 32, 74, 240 (L.).	A form of Santālī (15), spoken in the Santal Parganas, Manbhum, and Morbhanj (Bihar and Orissa), and Birbhum (Bengal).
Maiḥtai	III	iii	20	The Assamese name for Meithei (206).
Maiṅtḥa	260	...	339	III	iii	332	Classed in the Census of 1911 as a Kachin-Burma Hybrid language, reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 2,781 people in the Northern Shan States. The name is a Burmese corruption of Mōngsa, the Shan term. For the correct classification see Kachin-Burma Hybrids.
Mai-tai or Mi-tāi	III	iii	21	The Dacca name for Meithei (206).
Maitariā or Matrai .	150	1,000	...	III	ii	102	A dialect of Rābhā (148), spoken in the Garo Hills (Assam).
Maithili	507	10,263,357	...	V	ii	5, 13, 54	A dialect of Bihārī (506), spoken in North and East Bihar.
Maithili, Eastern .	510, 511	1,302,300	...	V	ii	13, 14, 36	Spoken in Central and Western Purnea (Bihar and Orissa). The Survey speakers include 2,300 Thāris of the Nepal Tarai.
Maithili, Southern Standard.	509	2,300,000	...	V	ii	13, 54, 79	Spoken in South Darbhanga, North Monghyr, and the Madhupura Sub-Division of Bhagalpur (Bihar and Orissa).

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Maithili, Standard	508	1,946,800	...	V	ii	13, 54, 326 (L.)	Spoken in North and Central Darbhanga (Bihar and Orissa), and to the east.
Maithili, Western	514	1,783,495	...	V	ii	14, 106	Spoken in Muzaffarpur and East Champaran (Bihar and Orissa).
Maithilī	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a Bhili language (677) spoken in Khandesh. Not since identified.
Maiyā	411	VIII	ii	3, 507, 522, 531 (L.).	A dialect of Kōhistanī (407), spoken in the south of the Indus Kohistan.
Mājhī	634	2,307,628	...	IX	i	609, 651, 806 (L.).	A form of the Standard Dialect (633) of Pañjābī (632), spoken in Lahore, Amritsar, and Gurdaspur (Panjab).
Mājh-Kumaiyā	810	33,011	...	IX	iv	280, 332	A form of the Garhwālī Dialect (804) of Central Pahārī (784), spoken in Garhwal and Almora (U. P.). It is a mixture of Garhwālī and Kumaunī (785), and is also called Dō-sandhi.
Makrānī	X	...	329, 363, 376, 434 (L.).	Another name for Western Balōchī (362).
Makrānī (Kēchī)	363	X	...	385	A form of Western Balōchī (362), spoken in West Baluchistan.
Makrānī (Panjgūrī) . . .	364	X	...	385	A form of Western Balōchī (362), spoken in West Baluchistan.
Malabar	An old name for Tamil (385) and Malayālam (393).
Mālai-hālō	IX	ii	33	A name used in Shekhawat for a speaker of Jaipuri (741).
Malānī	III	i	442	Another name for Kanāshī (76).
Malār	865	2,309	...	XI	...	2, 5, 6, 153	A Gipsy language spoken in Chota Nagpur (Bihar and Orissa).
Malasar	A dialect of Tamil (285) spoken by a forest tribe.
Malay	2	...	3,610	A language of the Malay Group of the Indo-Nesian Branch of the Austro-Nesian languages. Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 3,559 people, principally in Mergui.
Malay Group	5,561	A Group of the Indo-Nesian Branch of the Austro-Nesian Sub-Family of the Austric Family of languages. Two languages of this Group are spoken in British India, viz. Salōn (1) and Malay (2).
Malayālam	293	5,425,979	7,497,638	IV	...	286, 299, 348, 647 (L.).	A language of the Dravida Group of the Dravidian languages, spoken in the south-west of the Madras Presidency.
Malayālam, Standard . . .	294	5,423,392	...	IV	...	286, 348	
Malayāṛma	IV	...	348	Another name for Malayālam (293).
Malayāyama	IV	...	348	Another name for Malayālam (293).
Malekudi	The same as Toḷu (302). A Madras caste-name.
Maler	IV	...	446	Another name for Malto (307).
Malhar	306	...	344	IV	...	410	Spoken in Chota Nagpur. Apparently a form of Kurukh (305).
Malheṣṭi	III	i	430	A local name for Kanaurī (77).
Mālī	A Madras caste-name, used as a name for Oṛiyā (502).
Māl Pahāṛiā	536	27,908	...	V	i	19, 99	A form of the Western Dialect (531) of Bengali (529), spoken in the Santal Parganas (Bihar and Orissa). The figures 12,801 given on p. 99 of Vol. V, Pt. i of the Survey are wrong.
				IV	...	446	
Malto or Maler	307	12,801	65,964	IV	...	286, 446, 648 (L.).	A language of the Intermediate Group of the Dravidian Family, spoken in the Santal Parganas (Bihar and Orissa). The figures for this language have also been erroneously given for Māl Pahāṛiā (536) in Vol. V, Pt. i, p. 99, instead of the correct figures for that language. See the preceding.
Mālvaṇī	VII	...	163	A name given to the Kōṅkaṇī Dialect (494) of Marāṭhī (455) spoken in Ratnagiri. The same as Kuḍāḷī (496).
Malvī (? Mālvi)	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Gujarātī (652). Probably the same as the next.
Malvi	760	4,350,507	...	IX	ii	3, 4, 52, 240	A dialect of Rājasthānī (712) spoken in Central India and the adjoining Districts of the Central Provinces.

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Mālvi, Mixed Sub-Dialects	764	274,723	...	IX	ii	52, 288	Various hybrid forms of Mālvi (760) spoken in Hoshangabad, Betul, Chhindwara, and Chanda (C. P.).
Mālvi, of Hoshangabad	765	126,523	...	IX	ii	288, 289	A mixture of Mālvi (760), Bandeli (610), and Nimādi (770), spoken in Hoshangabad (C. P.).
Mālvi, Standard or Ahīrī	761	3,872,228	...	IX	ii	53 (Gram.), 240, 258, 263, 305 (L.).	The Survey figures include those for Rāngrī (762).
Mālwaī, Jaṅgali, or Jaṭkī	641	2,130,054	...	IX	i	610, 709, 806 (L.).	A form of the Standard Dialect (633) of Pañjābī (632) spoken in the South-Eastern Panjab.
Mamtādi	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Gujarātī (652) spoken in Khandesh. Not identified.
Manchariā	A Gipsy language reported to be spoken by a tribe of fowlers in Kapurthala (Panjab), who are said to have come from Sind. The same as Machariā (864), <i>q.v.</i>
Manchāṭī or Paṭnī	72	2,995	...	III	i	177, 438, 453, 532 (L.).	A Western Pronominalized Himalayan Tibeto-Burman language, spoken in British Lahul.
Maṇḍālī	837	150,000	...	IX	iv	374, 715, 721, 759 (L.).	One of the Mandi Group of Dialects (836) of Western Pahārī (814) spoken in Mandi and Sukot States (Panjab). The Survey figures include those for Chhōṭā Baṅghālī (838).
Maṇḍālī Pahārī or Maṇḍī Sirājī.	839	10,000	...	IX	iv	715, 746, 759 (L.).	Another of the same Group of dialects, spoken in Mandi State (Panjab).
Māndē Kusik	III	ii	2, 68	A name for Gārō (134) used by the Gārōs themselves.
Mandi Group	836	212,184	237,934	IX	iv	715	A Group of Dialects of Western Pahārī (814), spoken in Mandi and Sukot States (Panjab).
Maṇḍī Sirājī	Another name for Maṇḍālī Pahārī (839).
Maṇḍlānā or Gōḍwānī	VI	...	158	A corrupt form of Baghālī (559) spoken in Mandla (C. P.).
Mandokhēl Dialect	358	X	...	112	A form of the South-Western Dialect (348) of Paṣhto (337), spoken in Baluchistan.
Man Family	591	A family of languages mainly spoken in Western China, and distinct alike from Mōn-Khmēr, Tai, and Tibeto-Burman. It includes Miao (43) in its various dialects and Yao (42).
Mangari	Another spelling of Māgarī (114), <i>q.v.</i>
Māngelā	VII	...	153	A mixture of Gujarātī (652) and Marāṭhī (455) spoken by Māngelās of Thana (Bombay).
Manglūtī	Another name for Malayālām (293).
Mang Tam	A form of Mo-s'o, <i>q.v.</i>
Manipuri	206	240,637	342,645	III	iii	20	Another name for Meithei (206).
Mānjhī (1)	IX	i	651	Incorrect for Mājhi (634), <i>q.v.</i>
Mānjhī (2)	120	...	533	III	i	178	A Non-Pronominalized language of the Tibeto-Himalayan Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. Its classification is doubtful. It is spoken in Nepal.
Mānjhī (1)	IV	...	30	Another name for Santālī (15).
Mānjhī (3)	IV	...	135	Another name for Asurī (22).
Mānjhī (3)	IV	...	147	Another name for Korwā (25).
Mānjh-Kumaiyā	Another spelling of Mānjh-Kumaiyā (810), <i>q.v.</i>
Manloi	A form of Palaung (4), <i>q.v.</i>
Man-Nawng	The same as Inṭha (268), <i>q.v.</i>
Manō	A dialect of Karen (31) reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey to be spoken by 2,465 people in Karenni. Cf. Manō.
Manō	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of the Bwē Dialect (32) of Karen (31) spoken in the Southern Shan States. It is not certain that this is not really the same as Manō.
Manpuu	A form of Palaung (4), reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey to be spoken by 46 people in the Mōng Long Northern Shan State.
Manthani	IV	...	594	A form of Telugu (319) spoken in Chanda (C. P.).

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Manton	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of the Pale Dialect of Palaung (4) spoken by 170 people in the Hsipaw Northern Shan State.
Man-Tong-Awn	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of the Pale Dialect of Palaung (4) spoken by 4,008 people in the South Hsenwi Northern Shan State.
Man-Tong-Long	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of the Pale Dialect of Palaung (4) spoken by 1,700 people in the South Hsenwi Northern Shan State.
Man Tun	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of Wa (5) spoken by 1,760 people in the Manglun East Northern Shan State.
Manu-Manaw	A form of Karenni (40), <i>q.v.</i>
Mānyāk	A form of Tibetan (58) spoken in Eastern Tibet.
Māoli	470	35,000	...	VII	...	61, 64	A form of the Konkani Standard Dialect (457) of Marāṭhī (455), spoken in the Māval, or country above the Sahyadri, between Poona and Thana (Bombay). Probably the same as Ghāṭī (469) (VII, p. 64).
Māo Nāgā	III	ii	193, 451	Another name for Sopvoma (194).
Māplē or Māppilī	The same as Malayālam (293), as spoken by the Māppilas or Moplas.
Mara	Another name for Lakher (223).
Maraha	Said to be a Bodo language (127ff.), but not reported for this Survey.
Marām	195	3,500	3,522	III	ii	193, 431, 462, 480 (L.).	A Nāgā-Kuki language of the Nāgā Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in Manipur State (Assam).
Maran	III	ii	502	A Kachin (203) tribe found in Bhamo District (Burma). The name is sometimes used to indicate the dialect used by them and their neighbours.
Marārī	568	52,700	...	VI	...	19, 174	A form of the Baghelī Dialect (559) of Eastern Hindi (557), spoken in Mandla (C. P.).
Marāṭhī	455	18,011,948	18,797,331	VII	...	1	The Southern Language of the Outer Sub-Branch of the Indo-Aryan languages. It is spoken in the south of the Bombay Presidency, in Berar, and in the C. P.
Marāṭhī, Berar Dialect	See Berar Dialect of Marāṭhī.
Marāṭhī, Central Provinces Dialect.	See Central Provinces Dialect of Marāṭhī.
Marāṭhī, Standard Dialect.	456	6,193,083	...	VII	...	32, 34, 42ff., 393 (L.).	Also called Dakkhinī Marāṭhī or Panekari (VII, 33). Also Deśī Marāṭhī (VII, 32).
Marhēṭī	486	VII	...	218, 304	A local name for the Marāṭhī spoken in Balaghat (C. P.). The number of speakers is not known.
Mārī	IV	...	472	Another name for Mārīā (317).
Mārīā	317	104,340	...	IV	...	472, 476, 528, 529, 532, 539.	A dialect of Gōṇḍī (313), spoken in Bastar State (C. P.).
Mārīā or Muriā	VII	...	331	Said to be a form of Hal'bi (490). Probably the same as Mārīā (317).
Mārījhi	A Gipsy language reported in the 1891 Punjab Census Report. Not identified.
Maring	202	1,500	2,355	III	ii	193, 431, 472, 481 (L.).	A Nāgā-Kuki language of the Nāgā Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in Manipur State (Assam).
Marip	III	ii	500	A Kachin (203) tribe.
Martabanese	A form of Mōn (3) reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey to be spoken in Amherst.
Mara	263	...	20,577	III III	ii iii	502 382	Classed in the Census of 1911 as a Kachin-Burma Hybrid, reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey to be spoken by 35,531 people in the Northern Burma Hill Districts and in the Northern Shan States. For the correct classification, see Kachin-Burma Hybrids.
Mārwarī	713	6,088,389	...	IX	ii	2, 4, 16, 20 (Grammar).	A dialect of Rājasthānī (712) spoken in Marwar (Rajputana) and the neighbourhood.
Mārwarī, Eastern	715	1,974,864	...	IX	ii	16, 70	

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Mārwarī, Northern	736	1,359,146	...	IX	ii	16, 130	
Mārwarī, Southern	724	477,570	...	IX	ii	16, 87	
Mārwarī, Standard	714	1,591,160	...	IX	ii	16, 20 (Gr.), 63, 304 (L.).	
Mārwarī, Western	732	685,649	...	IX	ii	16, 109	
Mārwarī-Dhūndhārī	716	49,300	...	IX	ii	17, 71, 72	Spoken on the common border of the Jodhpur and Jaipur States (Rajputana).
Mārwarī-Gujarātī	731	65,270	...	IX	ii	16, 87, 105	Spoken in South Marwar and in Palanpur State (Bombay).
Mārwarī-Sindhī	734	131,960	...	IX	ii	16	Spoken in West Marwar and Sind.
Marwat	352	X	...	85	A form of the South-Western Dialect (348) of Pashtō (337), spoken by Marwats in Bannu (N.-W. Frontier Province).
Mashkēl	Reported as a form of Balōchī (361) spoken in the Chagai Agency of Baluchistan and in the Karachi, Shikarpur, and Upper Sind Frontier Districts of Sind. Not identified.
Mastung Dēhwārī	333	X	...	452	A form of the Dēhwārī Dialect (332) of Persian (331) spoken in Baluchistan.
Mathawādī	IX	iii	157	A form of Bhīlī (677), spoken in the Satpuras by about 20,000 people.
Mathundi	A Bhil language (677ff.) reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as spoken in Khandesh. Probably the same as Mathawādī, <i>q.v.</i>
Māthuri	Another name for Braj Bhākhā (592).
Matīā	Another name for Oriyā (502). A Madras caste-name.
Matrai	III	ii	102	Another name for the Maitariā Dialect (150) of Rābhā (148), <i>q.v.</i>
Matu	2596	...	51	A Kuki-Chin language spoken in Kyaukpyu (Burma).
Matwang	A form of Nung or Khauung (277a), reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey to be spoken by 2,000 people in Putao District.
Mannhepaka	Reported as a form of Sgaw Karen (34).
Māwchī	694	30,000	...	IX	iii	6, 95, 108	A dialect of Bhīlī (677) spoken in Khandesh. <i>Cf.</i> Gāmat'āi.
Mawken	The name for Salōn (1) used by the people themselves.
Maw-teit	A dialect of Kadu (281) spoken in Katha District (Burma).
Mayāng	555	23,500	...	V	i	394, 419, 437 (L.).	A dialect of Assamese (552) spoken in Manipur State (Assam).
Māyi	164	2,750	...	III	ii	235	A dialect of Rengmā (162) spoken in the Naga Hills (Assam).
Mazārī	Reported as a form of Balōchī (361) spoken by Mazārīs and southern tribes of the lower Derajat and adjacent hills. It is a form of the Eastern Dialect.
Mech or Mes	129	93,911	...	III	ii	2, 5, 36, 132 (L.).	A dialect of Bāpā (127), spoken in Goalpara (Assam) and Cooch Behar State and Jalpaiguri (Bengal).
Mediate Group	...	24,511,647	1,399,528	VI	...	1	A Group of dialects of a single language,—Eastern Hindi (557)—spoken in the east of the U. P. and of the C. P. It is the only Group of the Mediate Sub-Branch of the Indo-Aryan languages.
Medic Languages	X	...	2	The same as Non-Persic languages.
Me-gyaw	A dialect of Phōn or Phun (272a), <i>q.v.</i>
Mēhari or Mah'ri	VII	...	331, 350	A form of Hal'bi (490).
Mei-lei	III	iii	20	The Thādo name for Meithei (206).
Meithei, Manipurī, Kathē, or Pōnnā	306	240,637	342,645	III	ii	195 (Comparative Vocab.), 2, 8, 10 (Comparative Vocab.), 20, 45 (L.).	A Kuki-Chin language of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in Manipur State (Assam), and, according to the Burma Linguistic Survey, in Upper Chindwin (Burma). This language constitutes a Sub-Group by itself, known as the Meithei Sub-Group.
Mōju	III	i	613	Another name for Mijū Mishmi. See Mishmi (136).

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Mekhali	III	iii	20	Another name for Meithei (206).
Meki	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of 'Hindi.'
Mekle	III	iii	20	Another name for Meithei (206).
Mekrani	Another spelling of Makrani (363, 364).
Memani	A form of Sar'ti Gujarati (657) spoken by Memons of Surat (Bombay), or any other language spoken by Memons in Cutch, Bombay City, or elsewhere.
Meme	III	i	613	Another name for Digaru Mishmi. See Mishmi (126).
Men	A form of speech mentioned in the Burma Census Report for 1921. Apparently a form of Yindu (253), <i>q.v.</i>
Mendani	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Sindhi (445) spoken in Poona.
Mengwari	A form of Rajasthani (712) spoken by Mengwars, an untouchable caste in Sindh.
Mer	III	iii	129	The Chin name for Lushai (324).
Mergnese	272 a	...	177	A dialect of Burmese (265). Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey to be spoken by about 500 people in Mergui.
Merwara Marwari	719	17,000	...	IX	ii	71, 76	A form of Marwari (713) spoken in Merwara (Rajputana).
Merwari	731	54,500	...	IX	ii	16, 70, 76, 78, 84	A variety of the Marwari (720) form of Marwari (713) spoken in Merwara (Rajputana).
Mes	III	ii	36	Another form of the word Mech (129), <i>q.v.</i>
Meungsa	Another name for Maingtha (260).
Mewari	720	1,287,100	...	IX	ii	16, 71, 78	A form of Marwari (713) spoken in Mewar (Rajputana) and the adjacent country.
Mewas	A Bhil language (677ff.) spoken in north-west Khandesh. It is the same as Dehawali (685), <i>q.v.</i> <i>Mawas</i> is the technical name for a Bhil stronghold.
Mewati	754, 755	253,800	...	IX	ii	3, 43, 44, 45 (Gramm.), 221, 304 (L.).	A form of the North-Eastern dialect (753) of Rajasthani (712) spoken in Alwar, Bharatpur, Gurgaon, and the neighbourhood.
Mowaw	256	
M'hang	259	A Southern Chin language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. According to the Burma Linguistic Survey, it is spoken in Akyab and Kyaukpyn. The number of speakers in Akyab is unknown, but 200 are reported from Kyaukpyn.
Mhar	III	iii	256	Another spelling of Hmar (242). In the Survey it is spelt Mhar, with Hmar as a variant. The latter spelling is that which is correct.
Mi	A Chin language spoken in the Chin Hills, mentioned in the Burma Linguistic Survey, p. 53, as referred to in the 1901 Census Report.
Miao	43	...	394	III	ii	384	A member of a family of languages including Yao, Miao, and others spoken in Indo-China. These languages are provisionally named 'Man' languages, from the Chinese name used for their speakers. According to the Burma Linguistic Survey, Miao is spoken by 655 people in the Southern Shan States. It is also called Khe-pok, Miaobyu and Miaotsu. Dialects are He Miao, Hmang, and Pe Miao, <i>q.v.</i>
Midu	III	i	613	Another name for Chulikata Mishmi. See Mishmi (126).
Mien	The same as Myen, <i>q.v.</i>
Mi Err	Another name for Kwelshin, <i>q.v.</i>
Miju	III	i	618, 623 (L.)	A form of Mishmi (126).
Miku	189	89,516	109,123	III	ii	193, 195ff. (Comparative Vocab.), 379, 380, 433 (L.).	A Naga-Kuki language of the Naga Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in the Mikir Hills (Assam), and the neighbourhood. In the Survey, this language is classed as Naga-Bodo, but subsequent investigation has shown that it is a Naga-Kuki language.
Mikir, Standard	190	77,986	...	III	ii	380	

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Miklai	III	ii	265, 284	Another name for Lhötā (169).
Milenanang	III	i	430	A local name for Kanauri (77). A corruption of Min-chhāng.
Milchang	III	i	430	A local name for Kanauri (77). A corruption of Min-chhāng.
Mimā	III	ii	205	Another name for Nāli (158), <i>q.v.</i>
Min-chhān, Min-chhāng	III	i	430	Other names for Kanauri (77).
Mirgānī	VII	...	331	A form of Hal'bi (490).
Miri (1)	III	ii	333	A name sometimes given to Chāng or Mojung (179).
Miri (2)	124	35,510	65,289	III	i	568, 584, 622 (L.).	A language of the North Assam Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. Spoken in Assam, but mostly outside settled British Territory. The Census figures include also speakers of Abor (123).
Mirzāpurī	3,117	Reported in the 1921 Central India Census Report as another name for Awadhī (558), <i>q.v.</i>
Mishmi	126	220	846	III	i	568, 613, 623 (L.).	A language of the North Assam Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. Spoken in Assam, but almost entirely outside settled British Territory. <i>Cf.</i> Khamsā.
Mi-shing	III	i	584	Another name for Miri (124).
Mishra	A Gipsy language reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as spoken in Bijapur. The same as Śikalgārī (872), <i>q.v.</i>
Mi-tai or Mai-tai	III	iii	21	A Dacca name for Meithei (206).
Mite	A form of Karenni (40), <i>q.v.</i>
Mithan Nāgā	III	ii	333	Another name for Mutoniā (176).
Mithun	III	i	613	Another name for Bebejiya Mishmi. See Mishmi (126).
Mixed Dialects of Kāshmīrī	402	45,316	...	VIII	ii	402ff.	Mixed forms of Kāshmīrī (399) spoken in the North of the Jammu State.
Mixed Oriyā	504	582,798	...	V	ii	369	Mixtures of Oriyā (502) and Bengali (529) spoken in the North of Orissa and in Midnapur (Bengal).
Miyang	An incorrect spelling of Mayāng, <i>q.v.</i>
Miyāngkhāng	196	5,000	...	III	ii	193, 431, 462	A Nāgā-Kuki language of the Nāgā Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in Manipur State (Assam).
Mōḍī	A Madras name for Marāṭhī (455). Really, the name of a written character.
Mōghīā	In the Panjab, the equivalent of Bāori (681). In the Orissa Tributary States the Oriyā (502) spoken by Mōghīās.
Moglai	III	iii	20	The Bengali name for Meithei (206).
Mogli	Reported in the 1921 Bombay Census Report as a name given to the Hindōstānī (582) spoken in the Nizām's territories.
Mogulsch	IX	i	9	An old German-Latin name for Hindōstānī (582). <i>Cf.</i> Indostanica, Hindustanica, and Mourica.
Mohongīā, Borduarīā, or Pānduarīā	177	1,600	...	III	ii	193, 329, 334	An Eastern Nāgā language of the Nāgā Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in Sibsagar (Assam). The Survey figures include also speakers of Banparā (175) and Mutoniā (176).
Mohteik, Mohti, Mahteik	Forms of Pwo Karen (35), <i>q.v.</i>
Moojung	III	ii	193, 329	Another name for Chāng (179).
Molo	IV	...	107	The name of a sub-caste speaking Kōḍā (19).
Momyin Tayok	A name used in Burma for Yūnnanese.
Mōn or Talaing	3	...	189,263	A language of the Mōn-Khmēr Branch of the Austro-Asiatic languages. According to the Burma Linguistic Survey, it is spoken by 224,424 people, principally in Amherst and Thatōn.
Mong Long	A form of Shāngale, <i>q.v.</i>

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Mōng Lwe	A Palaung-Wa dialect spoken by a hill tribe in Kēng-tūng Southern Shan State (Burma). From the one Vocabulary that I have seen, it appears to be a form of Wa (5). It is said to be a form of Khamuk (7a), <i>q.v.</i>
Mōngnwe	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey to be a form of Palaung (4), spoken by 778 people in the Mōng Long Northern Shan State.
Mōngsa	According to the Burma Linguistic Survey, another name for Maingtha (360), used in Bhamo. It is the term used by Shāns, and Maingtha is the Burmese corruption of this.
Mōn-Khmēr	177,393	549,917	II	...	1, 39 (L.)	A Branch of the Austro-Asiatic languages. Four Groups of this Branch are spoken in British India, <i>viz.</i> , the Mōn-Khmēr Group proper, the Palaung-Wa Group, the Khasi Group, and the Nicobar Group. In this Survey, the only Group dealt with is the Khasi. For the relationship of this Branch to the Munḍa languages, see Vol. IV, p. 11.
Mongolisch-Indostanisch	IX	i	11	An old German name for Urdū (585).
Mongsen . . .	168	6,300	...	III	ii	265, 269, 293 (L.)	A dialect of Āo Nāgā (166), spoken in the Naga Hills (Assam).
Monnepwa or Monnepga	41a	...	72	A Karen language reported from Toungoo (Burma).
Mopgā or Mopwā	Reported as a form of Pwo-Karen (35).
Morān . . .	153	...	1	III	ii	2, 130	A language of the Bārā Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, formerly spoken in Assam. It is said to have died out.
Mōshāng . . .	181	III	ii	193, 329, 340, 345 (L.)	An Eastern Nāgā language of the Nāgā Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It is spoken beyond the eastern frontier of Assam.
Mo-s'o, Mosso, Muhsō, Musu, or Mussu.	274	..	22,742	III	iii	383	A Lolo-Mos'o language spoken in Western China. The correct name is Mo-s'o. The people themselves use the word 'Labu,' when referring to themselves.
Mothai or Motle	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of Wa (5) spoken by 10,414 people in the Northern Shan States.
Motle	See the preceding.
Mourica	IX	i	9	An old Latin name for Hindōstānī (582). Cf. Indostanica, Hindustanica, and Mogulsch.
Mrang	Another spelling of Mrung, <i>q.v.</i>
Mranma	The literary name of Burmese (265), <i>q.v.</i> In colloquial use it has become Bama, <i>q.v.</i>
Mrō	Another spelling of Mrū, <i>q.v.</i>
Mrū . . .	264	17,991	22,907	III	iii	379, 380, 385, 395 (L.)	Classed in this Survey and in the Census of 1911 as a language of the Burma Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. Under the name of Mrō, it is reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 15,157 people in Akyab and North Arakan. Its classification is doubtful. In the Census of 1921 it is shown as unclassified.
Mrung	III	ii	109	A name used in the Chittagong Hill Tracts for Tipurā (151).
Mudi	IV	...	107	Another name for Kōḍā (19).
Muhsō	Another spelling of 'Mo-s'o' (274), <i>q.v.</i>
Muhti, Muhteik	See Mohteik.
Mulki	VIII	i	241, 381, 404	Another name for the Thālī Lahndā (432) spoken in Mianwali (Panjab) and Bannu (N.-W. Frontier Province).
Mullakuruman	A name given to Malayālam (293). Properly, the name of a Madras tribe speaking a corrupt form of that language.
Mūltānī (1)	VIII	i	233	Another name for Lahndā (415).
Mūltānī (2)	VIII	i	361	Another name for Sirāikī Hindkī (429).
Mūltānī (3) . . .	426	2,176,983	2,342,954	VIII	i	239, 301	The southern dialect of Lahndā (415).
Mūltānī, Standard . . .	427	1,709,838	...	VIII	i	301, 412 (L.)	
Multhānī	Another name for Kanauri (77).

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Mulung and Sima	III	ii	331, 342 (L.)	A name sometimes used for Angwänku (173).
Munḍā	...	2,874,753	3,973,873	IV	...	2 (compared with Dravidian), 7, 11 (relationship to Mōn-Khmēr), 16 (relationship to Australian languages), 23 (general character).	A branch of the Austro-Asiatic languages, consisting of six languages, viz. Kherwārī (14), Kūrkū (26), Kharīā (27), Juāng (28), Savara (29), and Gadabā (30). They are spoken in the hilly country separating the Gangetic Plain from the Deccan. These languages were formerly called Kolarian, but that name has been abandoned in the Survey.
Munḍārī (1)	IV	...	135	A name used in Raigarh for Asurī (22).
Munḍārī (2)	16	406,524	624,506	IV	...	21, 28, 79, 240 (L.).	A dialect of Kherwārī (14) spoken in Chota Nagpur (Bihar and Orissa).
Mung	Another name for Hmōng, <i>q.v.</i>
Mungī	X	...	455, 509	Another name for Munjānī (377).
Munjānī or Mungī	377	X	...	455, 509, 533 (L.).	A Ghalchah language of the Eastern Group of the Iranian languages. It is spoken in Munjan, which is outside British India.
Muntuk	244	III	iii	181, 262	An Old Kuki language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in the Manipur State (Assam).
Murasan	Another name for Tamil (285). Properly, the name of a Madras caste, the members of which are said to speak a corrupt form of that language.
Muriā or Mariā	VII	...	331	Said to be a form of Hal'bi (490). Probably the same as Mariā (317).
Murmi	112	36,848	38,512	III	i	177, 180, 189, 254 (L.).	A Non-Pronominalized Himalayan Tibeto-Burman language, spoken in Darjiling and Sikkim (Bengal) and in Nepal. The figures here given do not include the speakers in Nepal.
Musalmānī	IX	i	58	Another name for Dakhinī Hindōstānī (587).
				IX	i	171	Also used for the corrupt Hindōstānī (582) used by Musalmāns of Birbhum (Bengal), and for Eastern Bengali (545).
				V	i	202	
Mus'o, Musu, Mosso, or Mussu.	III	iii	383	See Mo-s'o.
Muthun	III	ii	333	Another name for Mutoniā (176).
Mutoniā	176	1,600	...	III	ii	193, 331, 333, 344 (L.).	An Eastern Nāgā language of the Nāgā Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It is spoken beyond the eastern frontier of Assam. The Survey figures also include those for speakers of Banparā (175) and Mohongā (177).
Muwāsi	IV	...	167, 182	A form of Kūrkū (26), spoken in Chhindwara (C. P.).
Myamma	A name of Burmese (265), <i>q.v.</i>
Myānwālē or Lhārī	866	XI	...	2, 5, 6, 89	A Gipsy language, spoken in Belgaum (Bombay).
Myeik	Another name for Merguese (272a), <i>q.v.</i>
Myen or Mien	III	iii	383	A Shān name for Kwi (277), a Shān name for Burmese (265), and also the Chinese name for Burma.
Myū	Another spelling of Mrū (264).
Nāchherōng	100	III	i	343 (Vocab.), 365	A dialect of Khambū (87) spoken in Nepal.
Na-chi or Na-chri	III	iii	383	Another name for Mo-s'o, Musu, or Mussu, <i>q.v.</i>
Nāgā-Bodo	...	86,353	27,109	III	ii	193, 379	A sub-group of the Nāgā Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It includes three languages, viz. Ēmpō (183), Kabui (187), and Khoirāo (188).
Nāgā Group	...	252,799	338,634	III	i	2, 11	A Group of languages of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It includes five sub-groups, viz. a Western, a Central, an Eastern, a Nāgā-Bodo, and a Nāgā-Kuki. All the languages of this Group are spoken in Assam or beyond its eastern frontier.
				III	ii	193	
				III	iii	3 (compared with Kuki-Chin).	
Nāgā-Kuki	...	139,516	152,266	III	ii	193, 451	A sub-group of the above Nāgā Group. It includes six languages, viz. Mikir (189), Sopromā (194), Marām (195), Miyāngkhāng (196), Kwoirong (197), and Tāngkhul (198). All are spoken in Assam, and, except the first, all in the Manipur State.

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Nāgarchāl	746	71,575	...	IX	ii	31, 191	A form of the Central Eastern Dialect (740) of Rājasthānī (712), spoken in Jaipur State (Rajputana).
Nāgarī (1)	The name of the well-known script, hence sometimes reported as a form of 'Hindī'.
Nāgarī (2)	654	IX	ii	326, 378	A dialect of Gujarātī (652) spoken by Nāgar Brāhmanas.
Nagdiā	A Gipsy dialect reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as spoken in the Panch Mahals. Not identified.
Nāghōrī	A form of Mārwarī (713) reported in the 1891 Baroda Census Report.
Nāgpurī	478	1,823,475	...	VII	...	217, 248, 396 (L.).	A form of the Central Provinces Dialect (476) of Marāṭhī (455), spoken in the Nagpur District (C. P.) and neighbourhood.
Nāgpurī 'Hindī' . .	631	105,900	...	IX	i	88, 547, 558	A form of the Bundēlī Dialect (610) of Western Hindī (581) spoken by settlers in the Nagpur District (C. P.). It is much mixed with Marāṭhī (455).
Nagpurīā	526	594,257	...	V	ii	42, 43, 277, 329 (L.).	A form of the Bhojpuri Dialect (519) of Bihārī (506), spoken in Palamau (Bihar and Orissa).
Nagpurīyā	811	51,831	...	IX	iv	280, 334	A form of the Garhwālī Dialect (804) of Central Pahārī (784), spoken in Garhwal (U. P.).
Nāgrī	Another spelling of Nāgarī, <i>q.v.</i>
Nahālī	IV	...	9, 167, 185, 242 (L.).	A broken form of Kūrkū (36).
Nāhari (1)	492	482	...	VII	...	2, 219, 330, 379	A form of the Central Provinces Dialect (476) of Marāṭhī (455), spoken in the Kanker State (C. P.). It is closely related to Hal'bi (490).
Nāhari (2) or Bāglanī .	695	13,000	...	IX	iii	6, 148	A dialect of Bhilī (677), spoken in Nasik and Surgana (Bombay).
Nahērā Mēwātī . .	757	169,300	...	IX	ii	44	A form of the North-Eastern Dialect (753) of Rājasthānī (712), spoken in Alwar State.
Nāik'dī	696	12,100	...	IX	iii	6, 88, 108	A dialect of Bhilī (677), spoken in Rawakantha, Panch Mahals, and Surat (Bombay).
Naikī (1)	A name for Banjārī (771) used in the Central Provinces and Bihar.
Naikī (2)	312	195	...	IV	...	286, 474, 561, 570.	A dialect of Kōlāmī (309), spoken by Darwō Gōṇds of Chanda (C. P.).
Nailī	IX	i	610, 696	Another name for Pachhādī (640).
Naipālī	IX	iv	1, 17	Another name for Eastern Pahārī (781).
Nakrai	A form of Taangḥu (36), <i>q.v.</i>
Nālāgarhī	A name given to the Pañjābī (632) of Nalagarh.
Nālī	IX	iii	157	A form of Bhilī (677) spoken in the Satpuras by about 10,000 people.
Nālī or Mimā . . .	158	590	...	III	ii	205, 220, 246 (L.).	A dialect of Angāmi (154), spoken in the Naga Hills (Assam).
Nalkēri	The same as Tuḷu (302). A Madras caste-name, possibly indicating a separate dialect.
Namfau	III	iii	272	Another name for Anāl (247).
Namsan	Another name for Katurr, <i>q.v.</i>
Nāmsang, Southern	III	ii	331	A name sometimes used for Angwānka (173)
Namsangīā	178	1,870	...	III	ii	193, 329, 335, 345 (L.).	An Eastern Nāgā language of the Nāgā Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in Lakhimpur (Assam).
Naqqāsh	XI	...	3	A Gipsy tribe. Their language is not described in the Survey.
Narā	Another spelling of Norā (56), <i>q.v.</i>
Naring	An unclassified language, reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey to be spoken by 4,600 people (including speakers of unspecified dialects) in the Chin Hills.
Narival	Reported in 1921 Bombay Census Report as a form of Sirāikī spoken in the Upper Sind Frontier District. It is not clear whether this is Sirāikī Hindkī (429) or Sirāikī Sindhī (447).

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Narsāṭi	VIII	ii	2, 80	Another name for Gawar-bati (384).
Natakāni	487	180	...	VII	...	218, 313	A form of the Contra Provinces Dialect (476) of Marāṭhi (455) spoken in Chauda (C. P.).
Naṭi	867	11,534	...	XI	...	2, 5, 6, 121	One of the Gipsy languages (854) spoken in Bihar and the United Provinces.
Nawāṭi	VII	...	200	The same as the Dāldi sub-dialect (497) of the Kōṅkaṇi Dialect (494) of Marāṭhi (455). The Nawāṭis are a caste of Musalmān fishermen. Their language is called Dāldi.
Nāyar	Another name, used in Coorg, for Malayāḷam (293).
Nedu	III	i	613	Another name for Chulikāṭa Mishmi. See Mishmi (126).
Ne-du	A form of Chinbōk (252), spoken, according to the Burma Linguistic Survey, by 2,846 people in Pakōkku.
Nēgāsū	Reported from Mymensingh (Bengal) as a dialect of Gārō (134), but believed to be now non-existent.
Neuntē	Another spelling of Ngentē (226).
Nēwārī	115	5,979	10,134	III	i	177, 180, 214, 255 (L.).	A Non-Pronominalized Himalayan language of the Tibeto-Himalayan Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in Eastern and Central Nepal, and in Darjiling and Sikkim (Bengal).
Nēwārī, Standard .	116	5,979	...	III	i	177, 180, 214, 255 (L.).	
New Kuki	III	iii	2	A name sometimes given to Thādo (207) and other Northern Chin languages. This name is not employed in the Survey.
Ngachang	III	iii	382	Another name for Maingṭha (260). This is the term used by the speakers themselves.
Ngamei	III	ii	204	The Manipuri name for Angāmi (154).
Ngapai	An unclassified language reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 900 people in the Chin Hills.
Ngāri Khorsom	A form of Tibetan (58) spoken in Central Tibet.
Ngawn-hawt	A form of the Pale dialect of Palaung (4), reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 5,190 people in Tawnpeng Northern Shan State.
Ngentē	226	III	iii	107, 123, 139	A dialect of Lushēi (224), spoken in the South Lushai Hills (Assam).
Ngonhawt	A form of Palaung (4), reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 515 people in the Northern Shan States.
Ngorn	2593	...	3,832	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 5,600 (including speakers of Bwelkwa and Tapong) people in the Chin Hills. In the Census classed as Kuki-Chin.
Nibhaṭṭā	618	10,300	...	IX	i	87, 423, 479, 529	A form of the Bundēli Dialect (610) of Western Hindi (581) spoken in Jalaun (U. P.).
Nicobarese	13	...	8,662	IV	...	15 (Relationship to Muṇḍā).	The language of the Nicobar Islands. It forms a group by itself in the Mōn-Khmēr Branch of the Austro-Asiatic languages. It is a group of dialects, not of languages.
Ni-du	Another name for Yindu (253), <i>q.v.</i>
Nihāli	Another spelling of Nahāli, <i>q.v.</i>
Nimāḍi	770	474,777	...	IX	ii	3, 60, 296, 305 (L.).	A dialect of Rājasthāni (712), spoken in Nimar (C. P.) and the neighbourhood.
Nissomeh	III	ii	269	Another name for Āo (166).
Niswāni	422	9,432	...	VIII	i	239, 280, 293	A form of the Standard Dialect (416) of Lahndā (415), spoken in Jhang (Panjab).
Nizam's Dominions, Marāṭhi of	476	7,677,432	...	VII	...	1, 217	The same as the Marāṭhi of the Central Provinces. See Central Provinces Dialect. The figures include those for the Central Provinces and Berar.
'Nkhum	III	ii	502	A Kachin (203) tribe.

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Nogmung	205a	...	168	A form of Kachin (203) spoken in Putao.
Nokaw	A Nāgā language, reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 2,700 people in Upper Chindwin.
Nokhrāi	A form of Taungthū (38) reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken in the Southern Shan States.
Nokkyo	205a	...	132	A form of Kachin (203) spoken in Putao.
Non-Persic Languages	X	...	1, 2	A branch of the Eranian languages.
Non-Pronominalized Himalayan Group.	...	100,256	100,537	III	i	180	A Group of the Tibeto-Himalayan Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages.
Norā	56	300	...	II	...	64, 179, 215 (L.)	A dialect of Khāmī (52), spoken in Assam.
Nōrī	697	IX	iii	105	A dialect of Bhīlī (677) spoken in Ali Rajpur State (Central India). According to the Census of 1901, the number of speakers was 346.
North Assam Branch	36,910	80,482	III	i	2, 11, 568	A branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages spoken in the hills north of the Assam Valley.
North Baluchistan, Balōchī of.	367	105,522	...	X	...	394, 435 (L.)	A form of the Eastern Dialect (365) of Balōchī (361), spoken in North Baluchistan.
North-Eastern Lahndā .	436	1,752,755	...	VIII	i	239, 431 (compared with North-Western Dialects).	A Group of forms of Lahndā (415) spoken in part of the North-Western Panjab. The Census figures are too low.
North-Eastern Paṣhtō .	338	806,974	...	X	...	7, 11, 24, 113 (L.)	One of the two main dialects of Paṣhtō (337).
Northern Chin	60,345	83,033	III	iii	2, 8, 59	A sub-group of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It includes Thādo (207), Sōktē (212), Siyā (213), Rāltē (214), and Paitē (215).
North-Western Dravidian	...	165,500	184,363	IV	...	286, 619	The same as Brāhūī (328), the only Dravidian language spoken in the North-West, i.e. in Baluchistan.
North-Western Group	10,162,251	9,023,972	VIII	i	1, 6	A Group of the Outer Sub-Branch of the Indo-Aryan languages, spoken in Sind and the Western Panjab. The Census figures are much too low.
North-Western Lahndā .	433	881,425	...	VIII	i	239, 431 (compared with the North-Eastern Dialect), 541.	The same as Hindkō, <i>q.v.</i>
North-Western Shinā .	398	VIII	ii	150	The Puniālī dialect of Shinā (391).
Nowgong Nāgā	III	ii	265, 271	A name sometimes given to Āo (166).
Nōyri	A Bhīl (677) dialect spoken in West Khandesh. See 1921 Bombay Census Report, App. B, p. v.
Ntīt	205a	A form of Kachin (203) spoken in Putao.
Numbwe	An unclassified language reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 240 people in Northern Arakan.
Num-lan	A dialect of Chinbōn (254), reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 50 people in Pakōkku.
Nang or Khunang . .	277a	...	64	A Lolo-Mos'o language reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 9,017 people, principally in Putao District. The Burma Linguistic Survey spells the alternative name 'Hkunang.'
Nanyās	A Gipsy dialect mentioned in the 1891 C. P. Census Report. Not identified.
Nyamkat	Another name for Bhōṭiā of Upper Kanawar (64), <i>q.v.</i>
Nyār-kī Bōlī	IX IX	ii iii	70, 87, 89 26	Another name for Girāsīā (689), <i>q.v.</i>
Nyī-sing	III	i	585	Another name for Daflā (125), <i>q.v.</i>
Oḍḍā or Voḍḍā	Another name for Ōḍkī (868), <i>q.v.</i>
Oḍḍar	Ditto.
Oḍiyā	Another spelling of Ōriyā (502), <i>q.v.</i>

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Ōḍki	868	2,814	...	XI IX	... ii	2, 5, 31 18	A Gipsy language (854), spoken by a vagrant tribe in Western and North-Western India.
Ōḍnī	Another name for Ōḍki (868), <i>q.v.</i>
Ōḍrī	V	ii	367	Another name for Ōṛiyā (502), <i>q.v.</i>
Oiyan	III	i	584	A form of Miri (124) spoken in East Assam.
Ōjhi	571	100	...	VI	...	19, 174, 181	A form of the Baghelī Dialect (559) of Eastern Hindi (557), spoken in Chhindwara (C. P.).
Ōkhai	70	A name mentioned in the 1921 Baroda Census Report as a form of Gujarātī (652) spoken in Okhamandal.
Old Kuki	48,814	26,245	III	iii	2, 9, 181	A sub-group of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It includes sixteen languages (229-249).
Old Pūrbi	A name given to the Awadhī (558) used in old writings, such as the poems of Tul'sī Dās.
Omyerr	Another name for Katurr, <i>q.v.</i>
Orāō	IV	...	406	Another name for Kurukh (305), <i>q.v.</i>
Ōriyā	502	9,042,525	10,143,165	V	i	2, 135 (traces of, in N. Bengali).	A language of the Eastern Group of the Outer Sub-Branch of the Indo-Aryan languages, spoken in Orissa and the neighbouring Districts of Madras and the C. P. For a further note on Ōriyā literature, and also for a corrected list of words, see Addenda Majora, pp. 224ff.
Ōriyā, Standard	503	8,352,238	...	V	ii	367 382, 441 (L.)	
Ōrmuṛī or Bargistā	360	X	...	3, 4, 123, 127 (Grammar), 247 (L.), 253 (Vocab.).	An Eranian language spoken in Afghanistan. See also Addenda Majora, pp. 385ff.
Ōshē	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Mārwarī (713).
Ōsōmiyā	V	i	393	Another name for Assamese (552), <i>q.v.</i>
Ōswālī	IX	ii	18	A form of Mārwarī (713) spoken in Chanda (C. P.).
Outer Sirājī	See Sirājī, Outer (831).
Outer Sub-Branch	117,778,342	123,328,825	VIII	i	2	One of the Sub-Branches of the Indo-Aryan Branch of the Aryan Sub-Family of the Indo-European Family of languages. The languages of this Sub-Branch are spoken in North-Western and Eastern India, and in the country in which Marāṭhī (455) is spoken.
Pacharuā	IX	i	390	A name given to the Kananjī (804) of the North-East of Etawah District (U. P.).
Pachhāḍī, 1, or Dōābī	Another name for Vernacular Hindōstānī (582); also used for the Pañjābī (632,646) spoken west of Lahore.
Pachhāḍī, 2, Rāṭhī, Jānd, or Naillī	640	38,990	...	IX	i	610, 696	A form of the Standard Dialect (633) of Pañjābī (632) spoken in the Eastern Panjab.
Pachhāī	788	95,750	...	IX	iv	110, 206	A form of the Kumaunī Dialect (785) of Central Pahārī (784) spoken in Almora (U. P.).
Pachhārī	IX	i	313	A form of North-Western Braj Bhākḥā (597) spoken in Bulandshahr (U. P.).
Pāḥch Parganiā or Tamariā	V	ii	140, 146, 166, 327 (L.).	A form of Eastern Magahī (518).
Pāḍarī	849	4,540	...	IX	iv	881, 903 (Grammar), 915 (L.).	One of the Bhadrawāh Group (846) of dialects of Western Pahārī (814), spoken in Padar (Kashmir), on the Upper Chenab.
Padaung	37	...	13,743	A dialect of Karen (31), reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 13,389 people in the Southern Shan States, Karenni, and the neighbourhood.
Padaw	Another name for Padaung (37), <i>q.v.</i>
Paḍhī, Pahri, or Pahi	117	III	i	177, 180, 227, 255 (L.).	A dialect of Nēwārī (115) spoken in the central hills of Nepal.
Pagaḍiā	Reported in the Bombay Census Report for 1891 as a form of 'Hindi' spoken in Ahmedabad.
Pahāḍī	IX	iii	5, 47	Another name for Anārya (680). The word is another spelling of Pahārī.
Pahār	IX	iv	715	A form of Sukēti (840).

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Pahārī (1)	IX	i	671, 677	A form of Jullundur Dōābī (635) Pañjābī (632) spoken in Hoshiarpur.
Pahārī (2)	IX	iv	513	A name given in Patiala to Baghāṭī (820).
Pahārī (3)	IX	iv	513	A name given in Patiala to Kiūṭhālī (821).
Pahārīā	IV	...	30	A name sometimes given to Santālī (15).
Pahārīā-ṭhār . . .	535	462	...	V	i	69, 90	A form of the Western Dialect (531) of Bengali (529), spoken in Manbhūm (Bihar and Orissa).
Pahārī Bhābar	XI	...	121, 132	A form of Naṭī (867).
Pahārī Group	2,104,801	1,917,537	IX	iv	1	A Group of languages of the Inner Sub-Branch of the Indo-Aryan languages, spoken in the lower Himalayas from Bhadravāh to Nepal. It includes Eastern Pahārī, Khas-kurā, or Naipālī. (781), Central Pahārī (784), and Western Pahārī (814). The Survey figures are more correct than those of the Census.
Pahārī Pōṭhwarī . .	433	87,777	...	VIII	i	242, 432, 495	A dialect of Lahndā (415) spoken in the Murree Hills (N.-W. Frontier Province and Panjab). The Survey and the Census figures both include those for Dhūṇḍī (439).
Pahī	See Paḍhī.
Pahirā	Another name for Pahārīā-ṭhār (535), <i>q.v.</i>
Pa-khra	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey (where it is spelt 'Pa-hkra') to be a form of Wa (5) spoken by 1,110 people in the Northern Shan State of Manglun East.
Pahlavī	X	...	2, 9	An ancient Eranian language spoken in Persia in the time of the Sassanides.
Pahrī	See Paḍhī.
Pahti	<i>I.g.</i> Pa-thi, <i>q.v.</i>
Paidī	The same as Oriyā (502). The name of a caste of hill Pariahs in North-East Madras.
Paik	Reported in the 1901 Bombay Census Report as a form of Kanarese (296) spoken in Kanara.
Paitē	215	...	10,460	III	iii	2, 59, 81, 127-3	A Northern Chin language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in the Lushai Hills (Assam). The name is sometimes spelt 'Paithe.'
Pai-yi	Another spelling of Pei-yi, <i>q.v.</i>
Pajhanārī	A Gipsy language reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as spoken in Khandesh. A corruption of Vanjhārī, <i>i.e.</i> Banjārī (771). See 1921 Report, App. B, p. v.
Paḥṭō	338	806,974	...	X	...	5, 7, 11, 113 (L.)	The North-Eastern Dialect of Paḥṭō (337), spoken in Bajaur, Swat, and Buner, Attock, Peshawar, North-West Kohat, the Afridi Country, and the country to the west thereof.
Pākhyā	A language spoken by the Pākhyas of the Northern Ghāts of Nepal. The vocabulary borrows largely from Khas-kurā (781) and (perhaps) from Bihārī (506).
Pākī	The same as Oriyā (502). Properly the name of a Madras caste which speaks broken Oriyā largely mixed with Telugu.
Paku	41a	...	1,206	A dialect of Sgaw Karen (34) spoken in Karenni and Toungoo. Also called Buga.
Palaung	4	...	117,773	II	...	39 (L.)	A language of the Palaung-Wa Group of the Mōn-Khmēr languages. In the Burma Linguistic Survey it is reported to be spoken by 110,594 people, mainly in the Ruby Mines District and in the Northern Shan States. The Census figures include those for Pale, <i>q.v.</i>
Palaung-Wa Group	147,889	A Group of the Mōn-Khmēr languages spoken in Eastern Burma.
Pale	A dialect, or form, of Palaung (4), reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 26,567 people in the Northern Shan States.
Pallah	Said to be a Bodo (127) language, but I have not succeeded in identifying it.

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Pallaing	III	iii	339	A Southern Chin language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It is mentioned, but not described in the Survey. It is referred to on p. 54 of the Burma Linguistic Survey Preparatory Stage Report as not reported since 1901.
Pālpā	783	IX	iv	19, 75	A dialect of Khas-kurā, Eastern Pahārī, or Naipālī (781) spoken in Western Nepal. The number of speakers is unknown.
Pambada	See Pombada.
Panchālī	698	560	...	IX	iii	6, 138	A dialect of Bhilī (677), spoken in Buldana (Berar).
Pānch Parganiā	Another spelling of Pāch Parganiā, <i>q.v.</i>
Pangal	An incorrect spelling of Piṅgal, <i>q.v.</i>
Pangālī	Another name for Paṅgwālī (845), <i>q.v.</i> Also used as a name for the Bhōtīā of Lahul (62).
Pangnim	A form of Palaung (4), reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey to be spoken by 2,665 people in Hsipaw Northern Shan State.
Pangsu	205a	A form of Kachin (203) spoken in Putao.
Paṅgwālī	845	3,701	...	IX	iv	769, 846 (Grammar), 863 (L.).	One of the Chambā Group (841) of dialects of Western Pahārī (814) spoken in Pangi of Chamba State (Panjab).
Paniā	The same as Malayālam (293). Properly the name of a Madras caste which speaks a corrupt Malayālam.
Pāniduariā	III	ii	193, 334	Another name for Mohongīā (177), <i>q.v.</i>
Pāni Kōch	III	ii	95	Another name for Kōch (142), <i>q.v.</i>
Pañjābī (1)	VIII	i	361	Another name for Sirāikī Hindkī (429).
Pañjābī (2)	419	48,038	...	VIII	i	239, 280	A name given to one of the forms of Standard Lahndā (416) spoken in Lyallpur (Panjab).
Pañjābī (3)	632	12,762,639	16,233,596	IX	i	xiii, 607	A language of the Central Group of the Inner Sub-Branch of the Indo-Aryan languages, spoken in the Central Panjab. The Census figures are excessive and include many speakers of Lahndā (415).
Pañjābī, Standard	633	11,180,611	14,795,309	IX	i	609, 628 (Grammar), 646, 806 (L.).	
Pañjābī-Lahndā	646	2,432,024	...	IX	i	610, 743	A form of Standard Pañjābī (633) spoken in the west of the Central Panjab, where the language is gradually merging into Lahndā (415).
Pañjābī, Western	VIII	i	233	Another name for Lahndā (415), <i>q.v.</i>
Pañjābki	VIII	i	361, 363	Another name for Sirāikī Hindkī (429).
Panjgūri	X	...	385	A form of Makrānī (364) Balōchī (361).
Pankai	Reported in the 1891 C. P. Census Report as a form of 'Hindī.' Not identified.
Pānkhū	228	500	...	III	iii	3, 107, 144, 152, 161 (L.).	A Central Chin language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. Spoken in the Chittagong Hill Tracts (Bengal).
Pāno	Another name for Oriyā (502). Properly a Madras caste-name.
Pa-O	According to the Burma Linguistic Survey, a sub-dialect of Taungtha (36), spoken in the Southern Shan States.
Pāori	Another spelling of Pāw'ri (701), <i>q.v.</i>
Par'bhī	458	160,000	...	VII	...	61, 62, 93	A form of the Konkan Standard dialect (457) of Marāṭhī (455), spoken by Kāyasth Prabhus of Bombay, Thana, and Kolaba (Bombay). Also spoken by nearly the whole Marāṭhī-speaking population of Bombay and Thana, as far north as Daman. It is also called Kāyasthī and Damaṇī (VII, 62).
Par'echī	An Eranian language akin to Ōrmurī (360), spoken in Afghanistan. See Addenda Majora, pp. 385ff.
Pār'dli	699	8,648	...	IX XI	iii ...	6, 174, 188 2	A dialect of Bhilī (677) spoken in Chanda (C. P.) and Berar. The Survey figures include 3,238 speakers of Tākaṅkāri, which is the same language under another name.
Paman	III	iii	382	Apparently the Kachin name for Maingtha (260).

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Parava	The same as Tuḷu (303), properly a caste-name of South Canara.
Parbatiyā	IX	iv	18	Another name for Khae-kurā, Eastern Pahārī, or Naipālī (781).
Pardēsi	A name for Awadhī (558) used in Chanda (C. P.) and Central India.
Pārdhī	Another spelling for Pār'dhī (699), <i>q.v.</i>
Pariah	A name sometimes used for Tamil (385).
Parjī	318	17,387	...	IV	...	474, 477, 554	A dialect of Gōṇḍī (313) spoken in Bastar (C. P.) and North Madras, principally by Parjas.
Pārkarī	Another name for the Gujarātī of Thar and Parkar, <i>q.v.</i>
Pārsī	XI	...	1	'Persian.' Hence commonly used for any secret argot. <i>Cf.</i> Pārsī and Pastō.
				XI	...	119	Or used for the secret language of Kuchbandhī-Kaṭjārī (861).
				IV	...	30	Or used for Santālī (15) by non-speakers of the language. <i>Cf.</i> Pharsī.
Pārsī Gōṇḍī	IV	...	488	A name used in Mandla (C. P.) for Gōṇḍī (313). <i>Cf.</i> the preceding.
Pārsī Gujarātī	660	IX	ii	326, 392	The dialect of Gujarātī (652) used by Pārsīs.
Parvārī	Another name for the Mahār caste, whose language is Māhārī (485), <i>q.v.</i>
Pashai, Laghmāni, or Dēhgāni.	385	VIII	ii	3, 69, 89, 113 (L.).	A language of the Kalāshā-Pashai Sub-Group of the Kāfir Group of the Dardic or Pisācha languages, spoken in Laghman. The Census figures are accidental. The name is more correctly spelt 'Pashāi'; see Addenda Majora, pp. 259ff.
Paštō	337	3,905,725	1,496,267	X	...	3, 4, 5, 9, 113 (L.).	A language of the Afghanistan-Baluchistan Sub-Group of the Eastern Group of the Eranian languages. It is spoken in the North-West Frontier Province, and in Afghanistan. The Survey figures include those for persons speaking the language outside the limits of British India, in countries not subject to the operations of the Census.
Pashu	A form of Malay (2) spoken in Mergui (Burma).
Pāsī (1)	XI	...	119	Another name for Kuchbandhī (861). The word is simply another form of Pārsī, <i>q.v.</i>
Pāsī (2)	A Gipsy dialect reported to be spoken by the Gipsies of Fatehpur (U. P.). Not identified.
Pastō	XI	...	121	<i>I.e.</i> 'Paštō,' in the sense of an unknown or secret language. <i>Cf.</i> the similar use of 'Pārsī,' <i>q.v.</i> Hence used as a name for Naṭī (867), the secret language of the Naṭs. In the Bombay Presidency, where there are no Naṭs, it simply means 'Paštō.'
Patānī	A wrong spelling for Paṭṭānī (665), <i>q.v.</i>
Patānī	Reported in the 1891 Madras Census Report as identical with Hindōstānī (584 or 587). The word looks as if it were a corruption of 'Paṭhānī,' <i>i.e.</i> Paštō (337).
Paṭ'nūli	674	5,800	...	IX	ii	447	A dialect of Gujarātī (652), spoken by silk-weavers in Southern India. <i>Cf.</i> the two next.
Paṭ'vī	769	200	...	IX	ii	53, 288, 294	A form of the Mālvi (760) dialect of Rājasthānī (712), spoken by silk-weavers in Chanda (C. P.). <i>Cf.</i> the preceding and the next.
Paṭ'wēgārī	IX	ii	448	Reported as the language of silk-weavers of Belgaum, Dharwar, and Bijapur (Bombay). In Belgaum and Dharwar it is the same as Paṭ'nūli (674). In Bijapur, it is simply corrupt Marāṭhī (455). <i>Cf.</i> the two preceding.
Pathā	VI	...	149	A form of Gahōrā (564), <i>q.v.</i>
Paṭhānī	The language of Paṭhāns, <i>i.e.</i> Paštō (337).
Pa-thī	A name of Sgaw Karen (34), <i>q.v.</i> Also spelt Pahti. This name is used by the people themselves.
Pāṭidārī	662	IX	ii	402	A form of Gujarātī (652) spoken in Kaira (Bombay).
Pāṭigar	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Paṭ'nūli (674), <i>q.v.</i> , spoken in Dharwar and Bijapur (Bombay). <i>Cf.</i> Paṭ'wēgārī, above.

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Paṭkari	Reported in the 1891 Hyderabad Census Report as a form of Gujarātī (652).
Paṭli	1,619	A form of Bhīlī (677) reported in 1921 Census as spoken in Jhabua.
Paṭnī	III	i	453	Another name for Manchāṭī (72).
Paṭnūli	Another spelling of Paṭnūli (674), <i>q.v.</i>
Paṭṭanī	665	IX	ii	412	A dialect of Gujarātī (652), spoken in South-West Marwar, Palanpur, and the neighbourhood.
Patuā	IV	...	209	Another name for Juāṅg (28).
Paṭwi	Another spelling of Paṭvi (769), <i>q.v.</i>
Pāw'ri	701	25,000	...	IX	iii	6, 72	A dialect of Bhīlī (677) spoken in Khandesh (Bombay).
Pāwāri	612	353,500	...	IX	i	37, 473	A form of the Bundēli (610) dialect of Western Hindī (581) spoken by Pāwār Rājputs in Gwalior State and the Bundelkhand Agency. <i>Cf.</i> Pōwāri.
Peguan	According to the Burma Linguistic Survey, a form of Mōn (3) spoken in Amherst District.
Pé Miao, or 'White Miao'	A Miao (43) dialect spoken in the Southern Shan States (Burma). <i>Cf.</i> Hé Miao.
Pei-yi or Pai-yi	The Chinese name for the Shan tribes. 'Yi' is the character which was forbidden to be used in the British Treaty of 1858. It is usually translated 'Barbarian' (<i>lit.</i> 'squatter') and is commonly applied to the aboriginal tribes of South-West China.
Peṇḍhāri	869	1,250	...	XI	...	2, 5, 12	A Gipsy language (854) spoken in Dharwar and Belgaum (Bombay).
Pēngu	A dialect of Kui (308) spoken by the Pēngu Porojas. See 1891 Madras Census Report, p. 399.
Persian	331	7,579	6,268	X	...	3	An Eranian language spoken in Persia. The speakers recorded are visitors to India.
Persian Group	7,579	6,268	X	...	2	The Group of dialects forming the modern Persian languages.
Persic Languages	X	...	2	One of the two branches of the Eranian languages. The other is called the Non-Persic Branch.
Peshawar, Paṣṭō of	339	X	...	24, 113 (L.)	A form of the North-Eastern Dialect (338) of Paṣṭō (337), spoken in and about Peshawar (North-West Frontier Province).
Pēshāwari	VIII	i	241, 541, 554, 576 (L.)	A name for the North-Western Lahndā (433) spoken in Peshawar City. The word sometimes appears as "Peshori."
Pesta	Incorrect for Paṣṭō (337), <i>q.v.</i>
Phadāṅg	200	500	...	III	ii	463, 472, 481 (L.)	A dialect of Tāṅkhul (198), spoken in Manipur State (Assam). The Survey figures are doubtful.
Phākē	II	...	213	Another name for Phākial (54).
Phākial or Phākē	54	625	...	II	...	213	A dialect of Khāmti (52), spoken in Assam.
Phaldākōṭiyā	787	20,908	...	IX	iv	110, 202, 218	A form of the Kumaunī Dialect (785) of Central Pahārī (784), spoken in Almora and Naini Tal (C. P.).
Pharsi	IV	...	30	A name sometimes given to Santālī (15). <i>Cf.</i> Pārsī.
Phāsi Pār'dh	IX	iii	188	Another name for Pār'dhī (699), <i>q.v.</i>
Phin	See Pyin.
Phō	See Hé Miao. Also another name for Phón (272a), <i>q.v.</i>
Phón or Phun	272a	...	243	III	iii	382	A language of the Burma Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. In Burma the name is spelt 'Hpon.' The language is spoken in Burma, which was not subject to the operations of this Survey. According to the Burma Linguistic Survey, it is spoken by 650 people in Bhamo and Myitkyina.
Phud'gi	474	1,000	...	VII	...	2, 65, 130, 147	A form of the Konkani Standard dialect (457) of Marāṭhī (455), spoken by a wandering tribe in Thana (Bombay).
Phun	See Phón.
Phye	Another name for Phón (272a), <i>q.v.</i>
Phḍhāri	Incorrect for Peṇḍhāri (869), <i>q.v.</i>

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Pīṅgal	IX	ii	19	The name given in Mārwaṇi to Braj Bhākhā (592) when used by Mārwaṇis as a literary dialect.
Pisācha	VIII	ii	1, 3, etc.	See Dardic or Pisācha Branch.
Pishōri	Incorrect for Pēshāwari, <i>q.v.</i>
Pittī	Another name for Bhōṭiā of Spiti (63), <i>q.v.</i>
Plains Kāchāri	III	ii	5	Another name for Bāṇā (127), <i>q.v.</i>
Pnār	II	...	4, 14	Another name for the Synteng Dialect (11) of Khāsī (8), <i>q.v.</i>
Poeron	III	ii	416	A form of Kabui (187), <i>q.v.</i>
Pōguli	403	8,158	...	VIII	ii	233, 234, 402, 488 (L.).	A dialect of Kāshmīri (399), spoken in Jammu State (Panjab).
Poi	III	iii	55, 81, 109, 115, 136.	Another (Lushēi) name for Chin.
Pombada or Pambada	The same as Tuḷu (302). Properly a caste-name of South Canara.
Pōṇṇā	III	iii	20	A Burmese name for Brāhman from Manipur who have settled in Burma, many of whom still speak Meithei (206) in their homes.
Ponnyo	According to the Burma Linguistic Survey, a Nāgā language spoken in Upper Chindwin by 2,700 people. ? really the same as Pōṇṇā, <i>i.e.</i> Meithei (206).
Porojā	Another spelling, used in Madras, for Parjā. See Parjī (318).
Porwad	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Gujarātī (652).
Pōṭhwāri	437	684,362	423,802	VIII	i	242, 432, 477, 523 (L.).	A dialect of Lahndā (415), spoken in the North-West Panjab.
Pōwādhi	639	1,397,146	...	IX	i	610, 679, 806 (L.).	A form of the Standard Dialect (633) of Panjābī (632), spoken in the Eastern Panjab.
Pōwāri	625	3,000	...	IX	i	550	A form of the Bundēli Dialect (610) of Western Hindī (581). It is a mixed dialect spoken in Chhindwara (C. P.).
Pōwāri	569	43,000	...	VI	...	19, 174, 177	A form of the Baghēli Dialect (559) of Eastern Hindī (557), spoken in Balaghat and Bhandara (C. P.). <i>Cf.</i> Pāwāri.
Prakriti	Another name for Marāṭhī (455).
Prasū	See Prēsūn.
Prē	See Brek (41a).
Prēsūn	VIII	ii	59	Another name for Wasī-vari (381), <i>q.v.</i> A better spelling is Prasū. See Addenda Majora, pp. 248ff.
Pronominalized Hima- layan Group	...	93,978	107,841	III	i	273	A group of about 22 languages belonging to the Tibeto-Himalayan Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. They are all spoken in the Sub-Himalaya. They fall into two sub-groups, a Western and an Eastern.
Pulaiyar	The name of a forest tribe in Coimbatore. Used as a name for Tamil (285).
P'un	The 1921 Census spelling of 'Phun' (272a), <i>q.v.</i>
Punchhi	441	220,069	...	VIII	i	242, 432, 505, 523 (L.).	A dialect of Lahndā (415), spoken in Punch State (Kashmir and Jammu).
Punēkari	VII	...	33	Another name for Standard, or Deśī, Marāṭhī (456).
Puniāli	398	VIII	ii	150	The name of the North-Western Dialect of Shīṇā (391).
Pūrba Sribhāṭṭiyā	V	i	224	Another name for Sylhetīā (548), <i>q.v.</i>
Pūrbī	VI	...	10, 78, 100	A name sometimes used for Awadhī (558).
				V	ii	43, 248	Another name for Western Bhojpuri (525). The word literally means 'the language of the East,' and is used by people living to the west of the languages referred to.
Purik	See Bhōṭiā of Purik (60).
Paru	Reported in the 1891 Baroda Census Report as a form of 'Hindī.' Probably Pūrbī (see above) is intended.

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Pürüm	246	50	1,132	III	iii	3, 181, 263, 295 (L.).	An Old Kuki language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It is spoken in Manipur State (Assam).
Pwo Karen	35	...	352,466	A dialect of Karen (31), spoken in Burma, which was not subject to the operations of this Survey. It is spoken in many districts detailed in the Burma Linguistic Survey. Also called Talaing-Kayin. The speakers call themselves 'Muthait' or 'Shu.'
Pyin or Phin	277a	...	927	III	iii	384	A Lolo-Mos'o language spoken in the Southern Shan States.
Qaizarānī	See Qasrānī.
Qasāi	870	2,700	...	XI	...	2, 5, 6, 156	A Gipsy language (854) spoken by the Qasāis of Karnal. Also called Qasāiyō-kī Fārsī. Cf. Fārsī.
Qasbāti Urdū	IX	i	122	A form of Urdū (585) spoken in Lucknow City.
Qashqārī	VIII	ii	133	Another name for Khōwār (390).
Qasrānī or Qaizarānī	Another spelling of Kasrānī (368), <i>q.v.</i> Qaizarānī is said to mean 'Imperial.'
Quoireng	An incorrect spelling of Kwoireng (197), <i>q.v.</i>
Ra-aug	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of Palaung (4) spoken in the Ruby Mines District.
Rābhā	148	31,370	22,545	III	ii	2, 4, 102	A language of the Bārā Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in the west of the Assam Valley.
Rāghōbansī	627	3,114	...	IX	i	550, 554, 556	A form of the Bundēli Dialect (610) of Western Hindi (581). It is a broken form of Bundēli spoken by the Rāghōbansī caste in Chhindwara (C. P.).
Rahtōrī	A spelling of Rāthōrā (613) used in the 1891 Hyderabad Census Report.
Rāi or Jimdār	88	41,490	56,342	III	i	178, 276, 373	A language of the Eastern Pronominalized Himalayan Group of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in Nepal between the Dnd Kosi and Tambor Rivers. The Survey figures include those for Khambū (87).
Raikārā-tūkārā	Another name for Dūgar-wārā (601), <i>q.v.</i>
Raingkosa	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as an unclassified language spoken by 240 people in Northern Arakan.
Rāj	Said to be a form of Gōpḍī (313).
Rājapurī	The same as Kōṅkanī (494). Properly the name of a caste in South Canara (Madras).
Rājasthānī	712	16,298,360	12,680,562	IX IX	i ii	xiii 16f.	A language of the Central Group of the Inner Indo-Aryan languages spoken in Rajputana. The Census figures are incomplete.
Rājasthānī, Central Eastern.	740	2,907,200	...	IX	ii	2, 31	
Rājasthānī, North-Eastern	753	1,570,099	...	IX	ii	2, 43	
Rājāwāṭī	747	173,449	...	IX	ii	31, 195	A form of the Central Eastern Dialect (740) of Rājasthānī (712) spoken in Jaipur State.
Rājbangsī	542	3,509,171	...	V	i	19, 163	A dialect of Bengali, spoken in North-Eastern Bengal and in Goalpara (Assam).
Rājbangsī, Standard	543	3,461,736	...	V	i	164	
Rajharī	Reported in the 1891 Central Provinces Census Report as a form of Rājasthānī (712) spoken in Betul.
Rājmaḥālī	IV	...	446	Another name for Malto (307).
Rājputānī	Another name for Rājasthānī (712).
Rājwarī	IX	ii	52	Another name for Rāngrī (762). Also spelt Rājwāḍī and Rājwār.
Rakhaing-tha	III	iii	379	The Burmese name for Arakanese (266). Cf. Rakhine and Yakaing.
Rakhine	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a dialect of Arakanese (266) spoken by 50,163 people in Akyab. Cf. the preceding.
Rakshānī	A form of Balōchī (361) reported as spoken in the Chagai Agency (Baluchistan).

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Raltē	214	18,133	5,539	III	iii	2, 59, 75, 127-8	A Northern Chin language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in the Lushai Hills and Cachar (Assam).
Rāmbani	405	2,174	...	VIII	ii	233, 234, 458, 489 (L.).	A dialect of Kāshmīrī (399), spoken in the Jammu State (Panjab).
Rāmgārhiyā	793	3,957	...	IX	iv	118	A form of the Kumaunī Dialect (785) of Central Pahārī (784), spoken in Nainī Tal (U. P.).
Ramōshī	A caste language reported from Poona. The people originally spoke Telugu (319) but have now generally adopted Marāṭhī (455). See 1921 Bombay Census Report, App. B, p. v.
Rāmpurī	IX	iv	Addenda minora to page 613	The form of Simla Sirājī (824) or Kōchī (828) spoken in Bashahr State (Panjab) of which the capital is Rampur.
Ramre	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a dialect of Arakanese (266) spoken by 59,024 people in Akyab. The same as Yanbye (272), q.v.
Rānaṭī	A Gipsy language reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as spoken in Khandesh. The word means 'Jungly,' and here probably indicates Bhilī (677). See 1921 Report, App. B, p. vi.
Ranāwat	703	500	...	IX	iii	6, 142	A dialect of Bhilī (677) spoken in Nimar (C. P.).
Randhādī	IV	...	637	Another name for Ladhādī (329).
Raṅgārī (1)	VII	...	293	The name given to the Kōshṭī Sub-Dialect (482) of Marāṭhī (455) when spoken by Raṅgārīs, or dyers, of Ellichpur (Berar). It is merely the ordinary Marāṭhī of the District.
Raṅgārī (2)	711	3,630	...	IX	iii	203, 229	A dialect of Khāndesī (707) spoken in Berar.
Rangaroi	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of the Pale dialect of Palaung (4) spoken by 100 people in Hsumhsai Northern Shan State.
Rāngdāniā	149	30,370	...	III	ii	102	A dialect of Rābhā (148) spoken in Goalpara, Kamrup, and the Garo Hills (Assam).
Rangkas	78	614	...	III	i	177, 428, 479, 534 (L.).	A Western Pronominalized Himalayan language of the Tibeto-Himalayan Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in Almora (U. P.).
Rāngkhōl	III	iii	181	This is the spelling employed in the Survey for Hrāngkhōl (229), which latter is the correct spelling.
Ranglōl, Gōndlā, or Tinan	75	2,987	...	III	i	467	A Western Pronominalized Himalayan language of the Tibeto-Himalayan Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in Lahul. The Survey figures also include those for speakers of Bunān (74).
Rangpurī	V	i	163	Another name for Rājbangsī (542), q.v.
Rāngrī or Rājwārī	762	3,872,228	...	IX	ii	52, 248, 270, 305 (L.).	A form of the Mālvi Dialect (760) of Rājasthānī (712) spoken by Rājputīs of Malwa (Central India). The Survey figures also include the speakers of ordinary Mālvi.
Rāṇī Bhil	703	87,540	...	IX	iii	6, 108, 110	A dialect of Bhilī (677), spoken in Nawsari of Baroda State.
Rao-kwang	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of Palaung (4) spoken in the Ruby Mines District.
Rao-kyin	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of Palaung (4) spoken in the Ruby Mines District.
Rao-mai	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of Palaung (4) spoken in the Ruby Mines District.
Rao-ping	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of Palaung (4) spoken in the Ruby Mines District.
Ratan	A synonym for Banjārī (771) used in the C. P.
Ratavdi	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Marāṭhī (455) spoken in Poona. Not identified.
Rāṭh	See Rāṭhī Mēwāṭī.
Rāṭhārī	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Gujarātī (652) spoken in the Panch Mahāls. Perhaps the same as Rāṭh'vī Bhilī (704).

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Rāṭhaurī	645	38,000	...	IX	i	610, 734, 741	A form of the Standard dialect (633) of Pañjābī (632) spoken in Ferozepore (Panjab). In the 1901 Bombay Census Report, the same name is given to a Gipsy language of Kolaba.
Rāṭh*vi	704	8,000	...	IX	iii	6, 60	A dialect of Bhili (677) spoken in Rewa Kantha State (Bombay).
Rāṭh*vi Bhilālī	IX	iii	51	Another name for the Bhili (677) of Barwani State (Central India).
Rāṭhī (1)	IX	ii	90, 98	Another name for Ābū Lōk-ki Bōli (728), a form of Sirōhī (726).
Rāṭhī (2)	IX	i	610, 696	Another name for Pachhāḍī, Jāṇḍ, or Nailī (640).
Rāṭhī (3)	643	22,000	...	IX	i	734, 735	A form of the Standard dialect (633) of Pañjābī (632) spoken in Bikaner State (Rajputana).
Rāṭhī (4) or Rāṭhwālī .	806	63,057	...	IX	iv	280, 311 (Grammar), 355 (L.).	A form of the Garhwālī dialect (804) of Central Pahārī (784), spoken in Garhwal and Almora (U. P.).
Rāṭhī Mēwātī . . .	756	222,300	...	IX	ii	44	A form of the North-Eastern dialect (753) of Rājasthānī (713), spoken in Alwar State (Rajputana). It is also called Rāṭh.
Rāṭhōrā	IX	i	87, 465	Another name for Lodhāntī (613).
Rāṭhwālī	Another name for Rāṭhī (4).
Raṭhyāl	Said to be a form of Kumānī (785). It is probably the same as Rāṭhī (4) (806), which is here classed as a form of Garhwālī (804).
Rau-Chaubhāṭī . . .	789, 790, 791.	56,679	...	IX	iv	218	A form of the Kumānī dialect (785) of Central Pahārī (784), spoken in the Naini Tal District (U. P.). It includes several sub-dialects. Rau-Chaubhāṭī proper is spoken in the east of the District by 6,875 people. There are also included under this head the corrupt form of standard Kumānī (791) locally spoken by 18,047 people, Chhakāṭiyā (792) by 25,800, Rāmgarhiyā (793) by 3,957, and the Bāzārī (794) jargon of Naini Tal town by 2,000.
Rawang	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of Nung or Khunung (<i>q.v.</i>) spoken by 1,500 people in Putao District.
Rawvan	Reported in Burma 1921 Census as a Kuki-Chin language spoken by 300 people in Pakókku. Also called Chin-mò, <i>q.v.</i>
Reang	A dialect of Tipurā (151), spoken in Hill Tipperah (Bengal).
Red Karen	The same as Karenui (40), <i>q.v.</i>
Red Riāng or Red Yin	Another name for the Shang-Yang-Sek dialect of Yin or Riāng, <i>qq.v.</i>
Rēgarī	A dialect of Western Hindi (581) used by the town Rēgars of Kishangarh (Rajputana).
Rein-Indostanisch	IX	i	11	An old German name for Western and Eastern Hindi (581, 557) and Bihārī (506).
Rēkhta	IX	i	44, 45, 147	The form taken by Urdū (585) when used in poetry.
Rēkhti	IX	i	45	A form of Urdū (585) used in poems written in the women's dialect.
Relli	Another name for Oriyā (502). Properly a Madras caste-name.
Rongkhāl	III	iii	181	An incorrect spelling of Hrāngkhōl (229), spelt thus, or as Rāngkhōl, in this Surrey. The passage referred to should be corrected accordingly.
Rongkhang	193	725	...	III	ii	380	A dialect of Mikir (189). It is a mongrel mixture of Mikir with the languages of neighbouring tribes, spoken in North Cachar (Assam).
Rengmā or Unzā . . .	162	5,500	5,103	III	ii	193, 203, 247 (L.).	A Western Nāgā language of the Nāgā Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in the Naga Hills (Assam).
Riang	Another name for Yin or Yang, <i>q.v.</i> Red Riāng and Black Riāng are names of dialects. Cf. Vol. II, p. 1.
Riang-leng	Red Riāng. See the preceding and Shang-Yang-Sek.
Riāṣā Dialects . . .	406	20,252	...	VIII	ii	233, 234	A group of dialects of Kāshmirī (399), spoken in the country south of the Pir Pantāl Range.

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Rīwāi	VI	...	18	Another name for Baghēli (559).
Rōdōng or Chāmling	99	III	i	343 (Vocab.), 363	A dialect of Khambū (87) spoken in Nepal.
Rōhilkhaṇḍī	IX	i	64, 213	The form of Vernacular Hindōstānī (583) spoken in Rohilkhand (U. P.).
Rohilla	Another name for Paṣtō (337). It occurs in the 1891 Hyderabad Census Report.
Rōhrū	IX	iv	Addenda minora to page 613.	A town which gives its name to one of the dialects of Kōchī (828).
Romalu	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Urdū (585).
Romany	VIII	ii	9	The language of the European Gipsies. The reference to the Survey deals with its connexion with the Dard languages.
Rong	III	i	52	A form of Bhōṭiā of Ladakh or Ladakhī (61). It is the most eastern dialect of that language.
Róng or Lopeha	118	34,894	20,569	III	i	178, 180, 233, 255 (L.).	A Non-Pronominalized language of the Himalayan Group of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in Sikkin, Darjiling, Eastern Nepal, and Western Bhutan.
Rong-tu	The name by which the Taungṭhas (255) call themselves.
Rubrang	A form of the Pale Dialect of Palaung (4), reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey to be spoken by 456 people in Hsipaw Northern Shan State.
Rugā	141	500	...	III	ii	68, 135 (L.)	A dialect of Gārō (134) spoken in the Garo Hills (Assam).
Ruhok	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of the Pale dialect of Palaung (4) spoken by 78 people in Hsumhsai Northern Shan State.
Rumai (1)	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of Palaung (4) spoken by 100 people in Bhamo.
Rumai (2)	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of the Pale dialect of Palaung (4) spoken by 39 people in the Hsumhsai Northern Shan State.
Rūngghēnbūng	97	III	i	342 (Vocab.), 360	A dialect of Khambū (87) spoken in Nepal.
Sabari	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of 'Hindī' spoken in Khandesh.
Sadān or Sadri	V	ii	277	Another name for Nagpurīā (526).
Sadhōchī	A common spelling of Śōdōchī (830), <i>q.v.</i>
Sadri or Sadān	V	ii	277 (meaning of the word).	Another name for Nagpurīā (526).
Sadri Kōl	V	ii	146, 158	A form of Eastern Magahī (518) spoken by aboriginal tribes in the Bamra State (Bihar and Orissa).
Sadri Korwā	576	4,000	...	VI	...	25, 223	The form of Chhattisgarhī (572), spoken by Korwās in Jashpur State (C. P.).
Sāēth-kī Bōli	729	6,000	...	IX	ii	90, 101	A form of the Sirōhī Sub-Dialect (726) of the Mārwarī Dialect (713) of Rājasthānī (712), spoken in Sirōhī (Rajputana).
Sagnum	Said to be a dialect of Kanaurī (77). Not identified. <i>Cf. Samchu.</i>
Sahāranpurī	IX	i	64, 213	The name for the Vernacular Hindōstānī (583) spoken in Saharanpur (U. P.).
Saherīā	A form of Bundēli (610) as spoken by Saherīās in the Shiopur District of the Gwalior State. The main language is the corrupt Sipārī Hāpantī (752), for which see Vol. IX, Pt. ii, p. 216.
Sāilō	III	iii	127E.	A form of Lushēi (224).
Saimar	133	...	III	iii	61	A form of Thādo (207) spoken by a few people in the Cachar Plains (Assam).
Sain	III	...	189	Another name for Murmī (113), <i>q.v.</i>
Saingbaung	2596	...	7,332	A Kuki-Chin language, spoken in Kyaukpau (Burma).

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Sainjī	835	10,000	...	IX	iv	669, 701, 705 (L.).	One of the Kulu Group of Dialects (832) of Western Pahari (814), spoken in Kulu (Panjab). The Census figures include also those for Outer Sirāji (831) of the Satlaj Group (829) and for Inner Sirāji (834) of this Group.
Sairang	311	5,270	...	III	iii	61, 88 (L.).	A dialect of Thādo (307) spoken in the Cachar Plains (Assam).
Sak	284	...	614	III	iii	329	Another name for Thet, <i>q.v.</i>
Sak (Lui) Group	25,145	
Sakājāib or Shekasip .	235	315	...	III	iii	192	A dialect of Hallām (232) spoken in North Cachar (Assam).
Salāni	812	229,758	...	IX	iv	280, 336	A form of Garhwāli (804) spoken in Garhwal, Almora, and the neighbourhood to the south (U. P.).
Sālēwārī	322	3,660	...	IV	...	577, 594	A dialect of Telugu (319) spoken by Sālēwārs in Chanda (C. P.).
Salōn	1	...	1,951	A language of the Malay Group of the Indo-Nesian Branch of the Austro-Nesian languages. It is also (incorrectly) called Selung. The people call themselves Mawken. It is reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 630 people in Mergui.
Salt Range Dialect, Western.	442	25,000	...	VIII	i	432, 433, 522 (L.).	A form of the North-Eastern Dialect (436) of Lahndā (415), spoken in the Salt Range (Panjab).
Sām	Another spelling of 'Shām,' <i>q.v.</i>
Samaina	Another name for Āo (166).
Sanchn	Said to be a dialect of Kanauri (77). Not identified. Cf. Sagnum.
Samong	A dialect of Phōn or Phun (272a), <i>q.v.</i>
Sāmvedī	475	2,700	...	VII	...	2, 65, 130, 148	A form of the Konkani Standard Dialect (457) of Marāṭhī (455), spoken by Sāmvedī Brāhmaṇs of Thana (Bombay).
Sanḡameśvarī . . .	467	1,332,800	...	VII	...	61, 64, 122	A form of the Konkani Standard Dialect (457) of Marāṭhī (455) spoken in the Konkani between Rajapur and Bombay.
Sanglichī	375	X	...	455, 480	A dialect of Ishkāshmi (373), spoken in the Pāmirs.
Sāngpāng	92	III	i	342 (Vocab.), 351	A dialect of Khambū (87), spoken in Nepal.
Sangtamra	III	ii	290	The Āo name for Thukumi (171).
Sangyas	III	i	86	A name sometimes used instead of Nyamkat for the Bhōtiā of Upper Kanawar (64).
Sankara	A name applied to the Yerukalas, and hence also used to indicate their language (288).
Sanketha	A Coorg name for Tamil (285).
Sānsi or Sānsiyā	Another spelling of Sāsi (871), <i>q.v.</i>
Sanskrit	356	
Santālī	15	1,614,822	2,233,573	IV	...	21, 28, 30, 240 (L.).	A dialect of Kherwārī (14), often considered to be an independent language. Spoken in Chota Nagpur and the neighbouring country of Bengal and of Bihar and Orissa.
Sāṭāl or Sāṭār	IV	...	30	Other, and more correct, spellings of 'Santāl.'
Śārāchalī	Another spelling of Śārāchālī (826), <i>q.v.</i>
Sarāki	583	48,127	...	V	i	19, 86, 353 (L.).	A form of the Western Dialect (531) of Bengali (529), spoken by Jains of Ranchi (Bihar and Orissa).
Saran	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of Palaung (4) spoken by 132 people in the Hsipaw Northern Shan State.
Saran Dialect . . .	522	1,504,500	...	V	ii	44, 186, 313, 224, 328 (L.).	A form of the Bhojpuri Dialect (519) of Bihārī (506) spoken in Saran (Bihar and Orissa) and in the east of Gorakhpur (U. P.).
Sarāwakī	V	i	69, 86	Another name for Sarāki Bengali (533). See Sarāki.
Sarikolī	272	X	...	455, 471, 532 (L.).	A dialect of Shighnī (371), spoken in the Taghdumbash Pāmīr. Sometimes incorrectly spelt Sariqōli.
Sarwariā	524	3,353,151	...	V	ii	43, 224, 238, 328 (L.).	A form of the Bhojpuri Dialect (519) of Bihārī (506), spoken in Gorakhpur and Basti (U. P.).

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Sarwārī	722	15,000	...	IX	ii	78	A form of the Mārwarī Dialect (713) of Rājasthānī (712) spoken in Kishangarh (Rajputana).
Sāsi or Sāsiyā	871	51,550	...	XI	...	2, 5, 6, 49, 60 (criminal argot).	A Gipsy language (854), spoken principally in the Panjab and the U. P.
Sassan	III	ii	502	Reported to be a Kachin (203) hybrid.
Satī	A name sometimes given to Mālvi (760), <i>q.v.</i>
Satlaj Group	829	38,893	...	IX	iv	374, 647	A Group of dialects of Western Pahārī (814) spoken on both sides of the Satlaj in Kulu and the Simla Hills (Panjab). The Census figures also include those for the Kulu Group of dialects.
Satnāmī	A religious sect of Chamārs numerous in Chhattisgarh. Hence sometimes used as a synonym for Chhattisgarhi (572).
Satpariyā	144	1,100	...	III	ii	96	A dialect of Kōch (142), spoken in the Garo Hills (Assam).
Saukiyā Khun	III	i	479	Another name for Rangkas (78).
Saungpa	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of Nung or Khunung spoken by 1,228 people in Putao District.
Saurāshtrī	IX	ii	447	Another name for Pat*ñūli (674), used in the Madras Presidency.
Sauriā	IV	...	446	Another name for Malto (307).
Savara	29	102,039	168,441	IV	...	21, 217, 243 (L.).	A Mundā language, spoken in the North-East Hills of the Madras Presidency.
Sawain	VIII	i	241, 449, 468, 541, 542.	A form of the North-Western Dialect (433) of Lahndā (415), spoken in Attock (Panjab).
Sawara	IV	...	217	Another spelling of Savara, <i>q.v.</i>
S'aw-ko Karen	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of Karen (31) spoken by 1,783 people in the Toungoo District. The Burma Linguistic Survey spells the name Hsaw-ko.
Sawn	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of Wa (5) spoken by 1,260 people in the Manglun East, Northern Shan State.
Sawpana	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of the Pale Dialect of Palaung (4), spoken by 3,008 people in Tawnpeng Northern Shan State.
Scythian Family	IV	...	282	
Selon (1)	Another spelling of Salōn (1), <i>q.v.</i>
Selon (2)	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of Palaung (4), spoken by 336 people in the Northern Shan States.
Selung	An incorrect spelling of Salōn (1), <i>q.v.</i>
S'em	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey, where the name is spelt 'Hsem,' as an unclassified language, probably a form of Wa (5), spoken by 215 people in the Kengtūng Southern Shan State. In the Census of 1921, it is spelt Hsen, and is classed as a form of Wa. Cf. S'en S'am.
Semā	159	26,400	34,883	III	ii	193, 203, 222, 246 (L.).	A Western Nāgā language of the Nāgā Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. Spoken in the Naga Hills (Assam). A corrected List of Words will be found in Addenda Majora, pp. 203ff. See S'em.
S'en	
Sengimā (1)	III	ii	411	Another name for Ēmpō (183).
Sengimā (2)	185	III	ii	411	The name of one of the dialects of Ēmpō (183).
Sengmai	279	III	iii	43, 45 (L.).	A Lūi (278) language, spoken in Manipur State (Assam). Closely related to Andro (279) and Kadu (281).
Senkadong	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a Nāgā language spoken by 2,000 people in Upper Chindwin.
S'en S'am	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey, where the name is spelt 'Hsen Hsum,' as an unclassified language, probably a form of Wa (5), spoken by 1,265 people in the Kengtūng Southern Shan State. Cf. S'em.

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S'entung	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey, where the name is spelt 'Hsentung,' as an unclassified language spoken by 8,000 people (including speakers of unspecified dialects) in the Chin Hills.
Seo-Bankar	414	VIII	ii	522	A form of the Maiyā Dialect (411) of Kōhistanī (407) spoken in the Indus Kohistan.
Sēri	III	iii	59	A form of Thādo (207).
Sgaw Karen	34	...	368,282	A dialect of Karen (31), spoken in many Districts of Burma. See Burma Linguistic Survey. The people call themselves 'Pa-thi,' <i>q.v.</i>
Shaiyāng	III	i	584	A form of Miri (124).
Shalno	III	i	73	A name sometimes given to Bhōtiā of Tibet or Tibetan (58).
Sham	III	i	52	A form of Bhōtiā of Ladakh or Ladakhī (61).
Shām	II	...	59, 193	Another name for the Tai Group of languages. See Tai. The word is the same as 'Shān.'
Shām Doān	II	...	193	Another name for Aiton (50), <i>q.v.</i>
Shām Turūng	II	...	64, 167	Another name for Tairong (55), <i>q.v.</i>
Shān	49	200	843,810	A language of the Tai Group of the Siamese-Chinese languages, spoken over the greater part of Burma, and principally in the Shan States. There are a few speakers of the Aiton dialect (50) found in Assam, and these alone fell under the operations of this Survey. According to the Burma Linguistic Survey, the number of speakers in Burma is 918,995.
Shān-Bama	5	The Burmese name for Shāns (49) long settled in Upper Burma.
Shān, Big	See Tai Lōng.
Shān-Chinese	The same as Shān-Tayok, <i>q.v.</i> As the speakers are Shāns, not Chinese, the name 'Chinese-Shān' would be more appropriate.
Shandu or Shendu	III	iii	55, 126	Another name for Chin, <i>q.v.</i>
Shāngale	474,878	A form of Shān (49).
Shānggō	182	III	ii	193, 339, 340, 345 (L).	An Eastern Nāgā language of the Nāgā Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken beyond the North-Eastern Frontier of Assam.
Shangkhipo	Reported to be a form of Pwo Karen (35). Not mentioned in the Burma Linguistic Survey.
Shang-Yang-Sek or Red Riāng.	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a dialect of Yin or Riāng (<i>q.v.</i>), spoken by 2,225 people in the Southern Shan States.
Shāngyi	18,074	A form of Shān (49). The same as Tai-Lōng, <i>q.v.</i>
Shān, Small	See Tai Noi.
Shān-Tayok	23,473	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of Shān (49) spoken in Lower Chindwin, Bhamo, and Katha. The number of speakers is not stated. It is said to be 'markedly different from ordinary Shān.' See Tayok.
Shān-teo	III	ii	500	A Chinese name for Kachin (203), <i>q.v.</i>
Shang-Yang-Lam, Yang-Wan-Kun, Yam-Lang, or Black Riāng.	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a dialect of Yin or Riāng, <i>q.v.</i> , spoken by 25,474 people in the Southern Shan States.
Sharpa Bhōtiā	67	900	5,180	III	i	113, 143 (L).	A dialect of Bhōtiā (57) spoken in Eastern Nepal, Darjiling, and Sikkim (Bengal).
Shekasip or Sakājaib	III	iii	192	Probably the same as Hallām (232).
Shēkhāi (1)	VI	...	119, 120	A name given to the Awadhī (558) spoken by Musalmāns of the Champaran District (Bihar and Orissa).
Shēkhāi (2)	V	ii	14	Another name for Jolāhā Bōli (515), <i>q.v.</i>
Shēkhāwāṭi	738	488,017	...	IX	ii	16, 130, 140	A form of the Mārwarī Dialect (713) of Rājasthānī (712) spoken in Bikaner and North-West Jaipur States (Rajputana).
Shendu or Shandu	III	iii	55, 126	Another name for Chin, <i>q.v.</i>
Shentanp	2596	...	5,720	A Kuki-Chin language spoken in the Chin Hills.
Shighanī	371	X	...	455, 466, 532 (L).	A Ghalchah language of the Eastern Group of the Iranian languages.

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Shikāri	A Gipsy language reported in the 1891 C. P. Census Report. Not identified.
Shik-Shinshum	III	iii	59	A form of Thādo (207), <i>q.v.</i>
Shimpī	A name for Marāṭhī (455) used in Hyderabad.
Shinā	391	...	28,482	VIII	ii	2, 3, 10 (L.), 133 (compared with Khōwār), 149, 150, 224 (L.), 251 (compared with Kāshmiri).	A language of the Dard Group of the Dardic or Pisācha languages, spoken in Gilgit and the neighbourhood. For a corrected account of Gilgiti Shinā, with a specimen, see Addenda Majora, pp. 328ff.
Shingpraw	A variant pronunciation of Chingpaw, <i>q.v.</i>
Shingsol	III	iii	59	A form of Thādo (207), <i>q.v.</i>
Shiopurī	IX	ii	31, 216	Another name for Sipāri (752), <i>q.v.</i>
Shirāni	357	X	...	112	A form of the South-Western Dialect (348) of Paṣhtō (337), spoken in Baluchistan.
Shi-zāng	III	iii	73	Another name for Siyin (213), <i>q.v.</i>
Shō	III	iii	3, 331	Another name for Khyang (256), <i>q.v.</i>
Shoa	III	iii	331	Another name for Khyang or Shō (256), <i>q.v.</i>
Sholaga	See Solaga.
Shōmwāng	III	i	584	A form of Miri (124).
Shonshe	III	iii	116, 160 (L.)	A form of Lai (219).
Shou	III	iii	331	Another name for Khyang or Shō (256), <i>q.v.</i>
Shu	One of the names by which the Pwo Karens (35) call themselves.
Shunkla or Tashōn	216	41,215	20,754	III	iii	107	A Central Chin language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in the Chin Hills. Also reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken, under the name of Tashōn, by 340 people on the Chin Hills border.
Shunkla or Tashōn, Standard	217	39,215	10,709	III	iii	107	
Shweli Shān	A form of Shāngale, <i>q.v.</i>
Shyū	III	iii	331	Another name for Khyang or Shō (256), <i>q.v.</i>
Siamese	45	...	8,744	A language of the Siamese-Chinese Sub-Family of the Tibeto-Chinese Family. Its proper home is in Siam, but it is also spoken in Burma. It is reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 10,269 people in Eastern Burma, from the Shan States southwards to Mergui.
Siamese-Chinese Sub-Family	4,205	926,335	II	...	58	Most of the Indian speakers of this Sub-Family of the Tibeto-Chinese Family belong to Burma, which was not subject to the operations of this Survey.
Si-hia	An ancient, long extinct, Tibeto-Burman language, of which fragments still survive in literature. It is mentioned by Marco Polo as spoken in Tangut. See B. Laufer, 'The Si-hia Language,' in <i>T'auung-pao</i> , 2 ^e Série, Vol. xvii, No. 1, Mars, 1916.
Sijabu	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of 'Hindi' spoken in Khandesh.
Sikalgāri	872	25	...	XI	...	2, 5, 6, 167	A Gipsy language (854) spoken in Belgaum (Bombay). Also called 'Mishra.' See 1921 Bombay Census Report, Appendix B, p. vi.
Sikarwāri	596	127,000	...	IX	i	70, 300	A form of the 'Braj Bhākhā Dialect (592) of Western Hindi (581) spoken in Gwalior State.
Sikhariā	IV	...	107	The name of a sub-caste speaking Kōḍā (19).
Sikhī	A name for Pañjābī (632) mentioned in the 1891 Hyderabad Census Report.
Sikkim Bhōṭiā	See Bhōṭiā of Sikkim (68).
Sima and Mulung	See Mulung and Sima.
Simi	160	III	ii	222	A dialect of Semā (159), <i>q.v.</i>
Simla Sirāji	824	28,833	See Sirāji of Simla (824).

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Sind Balōchī . . .	369	145,790	...	X	...	413, 428, 435 (L.).	A mixed form of the Eastern Dialect (365) of Balōchī (361) spoken in Sind. The Survey figures include those for the Balōchī spoken in Las Bela and in Bahawalpur.
Sindhi . . .	445	3,069,470	3,371,708	VIII	i	1, 5, 14 (Grammar).	A language of the North-Western Group of the Outer Sub-Branch of the Indo-Aryan languages, spoken in Sind and Cutch.
Sindhi, Standard . .	446	1,375,686	...	VIII	i	9, 214 (L.).	Another name for Vichōli (446), <i>q.v.</i>
Singhalese . . .	499	...	3,437	A language of the Southern Group of the Outer Sub-Branch of the Indo-Aryan languages. It is not dealt with in this Survey.
Singhalese, Standard .	500	Not dealt with in this Survey.
Singli or Erāṅgā	IV	...	148, 163	A form of Korwā (25).
Singpho . . .	205	1,920	...	III	ii	499, 505, 519 (L.).	A dialect of Kachin (203) spoken in Assam. The figures of the 1911 Census are included in those for Chingpaw.
Sin-hmā Māpauk	A form of Karenni (40), <i>q.v.</i>
S'inlam	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of Wa (5), spoken by 4,352 people in the Manglun East, Northern Shan State. In that Survey, the name is spelt 'Hsinlam.'
S'inlong	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey,—where the name is spelt 'Hsinlong,'—as a form of Wa (5) spoken by 2,538 people in the Manglun East, Northern Shan State.
Sinsin	A dialect of Karen (31), reported in the Linguistic Survey of Burma as spoken in Karenni. The number of speakers is not there mentioned.
Sipāri . . .	752	48,000	...	IX	ii	31, 216	A form of the Central Eastern Dialect (740) of Rājasthāni (712) spoken in Gwalior State.
Sirāchali	Incorrect for Śirāchōli (826), <i>q.v.</i>
Sirāiki or Siraiki	VIII	i	9	Literally, the language of the Sirō, or country up-stream. Hence used to designate the two following languages, both spoken in Upper Sind.
Sirāiki Hindki or Sirāiki Lahndā.	439	104,875	...	VIII	i	9, 240, 359	A form of the Mūltāni Dialect (426) of Lahndā (415) spoken in Upper Sind. The word 'Sirāiki' is also spelt 'Siraiki.'
Sirāiki Sindhi . . .	447	1,112,926	...	VIII	i	9, 138, 140	A dialect of Sindhi (445) spoken in Upper Sind. The word 'Sirāiki' is also spelt 'Siraiki.'
Sirāji	IX	iv	593	The word 'Sirāj' means 'the Kingdom of Śiva,' and hence any mountainous country. It thus follows that 'Sirāji' is used to indicate several dialects spoken in different rugged hill tracts.
Sirāji, Inner . . .	834	20,551	...	IX	iv	669, 688, 705 (L.).	One of the Kulu Group of Dialects (832) of Western Pahāri (814) spoken in Kulu (Panjab). The Census figures also include those for Outer Sirāji (831) of the Satlaj Group (829) and for Sainji (835) of the Kulu Group.
Sirāji of Dōḍā . . .	404	14,732	...	VIII	ii	233, 234, 433, 489 (L.).	A dialect of Kāshmiri (399) spoken in Jammu State (Panjab).
Sirāji of Maṇḍi	See Maṇḍāli Pahāri or Maṇḍi Sirāji (839).
Sirāji of Simla . . .	824	28,833	...	IX	iv	549, 593, 629 (L.).	A form of the Kiūṭhali Dialect (821) of Western Pahāri (814), spoken in the Simla Hills (Panjab).
Sirāji, Outer . . .	831	20,000	...	IX	iv	647	One of the Satlaj Group of Dialects (829) of Western Pahāri (814) spoken in Kulu, on the north bank of the Satlaj. The Census figures also include those for Inner Sirāji (834) and Sainji (835), both of the Kulu Group (832).
Sirāli . . .	802	12,461	...	IX	iv	110, 246	A form of the Kumānni Dialect (785) of Central Pahāri (784) spoken in Almora (U. P.).
Sirāwāli	Another name for Sirāli (802), <i>q.v.</i>
Siripurā . . .	541	603,623	...	V	i	19, 119, 130, 354 (L.).	A form of the Northern Dialect (538) of Bengali (529) spoken in Eastern Purnea (Bihar and Orissa).
Sirmauri . . .	816	124,562	...	IX	iv	374, 456, 530 (L.).	A dialect of Western Pahāri (814) spoken in Sirmur State (Panjab).

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Sirōhi	726	179,300	...	IX	ii	17, 87, 90	A form of the Mārṡārī Dialect (713) of Rājasthānī (712), spoken in Sirōhi (Rajputana). It has two sub-varieties—Abū Lōk-kī Bōli (728) and Sāsth-kī Bōli (729)—besides the Standard, <i>q.v.</i>
Sirōhi, Standard . . .	727	171,300	...	IX	ii	90	
Siryāli	Another spelling of Sirāli (802), <i>q.v.</i>
Sittu	2596	...	3,918	A Kuki-Chin language spoken in Kyaukpyn (Burma).
Siyālgīri	705	120	...	IX XI	iii	6, 174, 197 2	A dialect of Bhili (677), spoken in Midnapur (Bengal).
Si-yāng	III	iii	73	Another name for Siyin (213).
Siyin	213	1,770	3,143	III	iii	2, 59, 73, 88 (L.)	A Northern Chin language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. According to the Burma Linguistic Survey, it is spoken by 3,160 people in the Chin Hills.
Small Shān	See Tai Noi.
Śōdōchi	830	18,893	...	IX	iv	647, 663 (L.)	One of the Satlaj Group (829) of dialects of Western Pahārī (814), spoken on the south bank of the Satlaj in the Simla Hills (Panjab).
Solaga or Sholaga	Another name for Tamil (385). Properly the name of a Madras forest tribe speaking that language.
Soktē	212	9,005	30,633	III	iii	2, 59, 72	A Northern Chin language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. According to the Burma Linguistic Survey, it is spoken by 21,400 people in the Chin Hills.
Son	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as probably a Wa (5) language, spoken by 465 people in the Kēngtūng Southern Shan State.
Sōnārēkhā	IV	...	107	The name of a sub-caste speaking Kōdā (19).
Sōṇḍwārī	763	203,556	...	IX	ii	52, 273, 278	A form of the Mālvi Dialect (760) of Rājasthānī (712) spoken in Jhalawar (Rajputana) and in Western Malwa.
Songbu	III	ii	416	A form of Kabui (187) spoken in Manipur State (Assam).
Songlong	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of Wa (5) spoken by 330 people in the Mainglun East, Northern Shan State.
Sopvomā or Māo Nāgā . .	194	10,000	13,096	III	ii	193, 431, 480 (L.)	A Nāgā-Kuki language of the Nāgā Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in Manipur State (Assam). It may with equal propriety be classed as belonging to the Western Nāgā Sub-Group.
Śōrāchōli	826	2,428	...	IX	iv	549, 602, 629 (L.)	A form of the Kiṭṭhali Dialect (821) of Western Pahārī (814), spoken in the Simla Hills (Panjab).
Sōraṭhī	668	733,000	...	IX	ii	425	A form of the Kāṭhiyāwādī Dialect (666) of Gujarātī (652) spoken in Kathiawar (Bombay).
Sōriyāli	800	19,866	...	IX	iv	110, 238, 354 (L.)	A form of the Kumaunī Dialect (785) of Central Pahārī (784) spoken in Almora (U. P.).
Sōriyāli Gorkhālī	IX	iv	19, 238	A form of Khas-kurā, Eastern Pahārī, or Naipālī (781) spoken by Nepalese settlers in Kumaun (U. P.).
Southern Chin	110,325	35,206	III	iii	3, 8, 329	A Sub-Group of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. Most of the languages of this Sub-Group belong to Burma, and were not subject to the operations of this Survey. According to the Burma Linguistic Survey, in that Province, there are 84,173 speakers of Chin, most of whom appear to fall under this Sub-Group.
Southern (Indo-Aryan) Group.	...	18,011,948	18,797,831	VII	...	1	A group of languages belonging to the Outer Sub-Branch of the Indo-Aryan languages. It includes two languages,—Marāṭhī (455) and Singhalēse (499), of which only the first is dealt with in this Survey.
Southern Namsang	III	ii	331	A name sometimes used for Angwānku (173), <i>q.v.</i>
South-Western Paṣṭō . . .	348	676,402	...	X	...	7, 11, 65ff.	A dialect of Paṣṭō (337), spoken in the south-west of the Paṣṭō-speaking tract.
Spiti Bhōṭiā	See Bhōṭiā of Spiti.
Srinagariyā	805	12,008	...	IX	iv	281, 298, 355 (L.)	A form of the Garhwālī Dialect (804) of Central Pahārī (784), spoken in Garhwal (U. P.).
Stieng	II	...	1	A Mōn-Khmēr language spoken in Indo-China.

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Sudā	A name given to the Oriyā (502) spoken by the Sudās of Athmallik State (Orissa).
Sudir	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Gōmāntakī, i.e. Kōṅkaṇī (494). See the next.
Sudra	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Marāṭhī (455). This and the preceding are the dialects spoken by the Sudir or Shudra caste. See 1921 Report, App. B, p. vi.
Sukāli	A Gipsy language reported to be spoken in Mysore.
Sukēti	840	52,184	...	IX	iv	715, 757	One of the Mandi Group of dialects (836) of Western Pāhārī (814) spoken in Suket State (Panjab).
Sulaimānī	A name sometimes used for Eastern Balōchī (365).
Śuṇḍī	VII	...	331	A form of Hal'bi (490).
Sunuwār	III	i	198, 254 (L.).	Another name for Sunwār (113), <i>q.v.</i>
Sunwār	113	5,356	4,132	III	i	177, 180, 198	A Non-Pronominalized Himalayan language of the Tibeto-Himalayan Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It is spoken in Eastern Nepal, Darjiling, and Sikkim State (Bengal). <i>Cf.</i> the preceding.
Sur'ti	657	IX	ii	382, 460 (L.).	A dialect of Gujarātī (652), spoken in Surat (Bombay).
Surgujā	574	384,546	...	VI	...	24, 312	A form of the Chhattisgarhī Dialect (573) of Eastern Hindi (557), spoken in the Kora, Sarguja, Udaipur, and Jashpur States of Chota Nagpur.
Surkhuḷi	IX	iv	Addenda Minora to page 613.	A dialect of Kōchī (828).
Swat Dialect	342	X	...	35	A form of the North-Eastern Dialect (338) of Paṣṭō (337) spoken in Swat.
Sylhettiā	548	906,231	...	V	i	202, 231, 224, 355 (L.).	A form of the Eastern Dialect (545) of Bengali (529) spoken in East Sylhet and in Cachar (Assam).
Syloo	III	iii	127	Another spelling of Sāilō, <i>q.v.</i>
Synteng or Pnār	11	51,740	...	II	...	4, 24, 38 (L.).	A dialect of Khāsī (8), spoken in the Khasi and Jaintia Hills (Assam).
Szi, Tsi, or Atsi	261	...	5,663	Formerly regarded as a Kachin-Burma Hybrid, <i>q.v.</i> , but now provisionally classed as a language of the Burma Group.
Szi Lepai	III III	ii iii	502 382	The same as Szi, <i>q.v.</i>
Ta-Ang	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of Palaung (4) spoken in the Ruby Mines District. The number of speakers is not stated.
Tabaing	A form of Zayein (41), <i>q.v.</i>
Tabara	A form of Karenbyu (33), <i>q.v.</i>
Tabaung	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as an unclassified language spoken by a few people in the Loi Long Southern Shan State.
Tabil	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as another name for Tamil (285).
Tableng	III	ii	193, 329, 331	Another name for Angwānku (173).
Tadavi	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a Bhil language spoken in Khandesh. <i>Cf.</i> Tawadi. The language is Bhili (677) with a Hindōstānī (582) mixture, as the speakers are Musalmāns. See 1921 Bombay Report, App. B, p. vi.
T'ado, Tadoi	III	iii	59	Other spellings of Thādo (207), <i>q.v.</i>
Tagatī	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Paṣṭō (337) spoken in Khandesh.
Tai-Awn	The Shān name for Shāngale, <i>q.v.</i>
Tai-Chaung	A form of Shāngale, <i>q.v.</i>
Tai Group	4,205	926,335	II	...	59, 67	A Group of the Siamese-Chinese languages, including Siamese (45), Lū (46), Khūn (47), Shān (49), Ahom (51), and Khāmī (52). Most of the languages of this Group are spoken in Burma, which was not subject to the operations of this Survey.

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		According to the Linguistic Survey.	According to the Census of 1921.	Volume.	Part.	Page.	
Tai-Khawng, Tai-Khe	Shān names for Shān Tayok, <i>q.v.</i> See Khe.
Tai-Lem	A Tai language reported in the 1921 Burma Census Report. <i>Cf.</i> Lem.
Tai-Loi (1)	A form of Shān (49), reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 20,991 people in the Shan States.
Tai-Loi (2)	A Mōn-Khmēr dialect akin to Wa (5) spoken in the Kengtūng Southern Shan State.
Tai-Lōng	18,074	The Shān (49) name for Shān-gyi or 'Big Shān.' See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, I, i, 195. <i>Cf.</i> Tairong.
Tai-Man	The Shān name for Shān-Bama, <i>q.v.</i>
Tai-Nawng	The Shān name for Intha (268), <i>q.v.</i>
Tai-Nō	The Shān name for Shān-Tayok, <i>q.v.</i> See the next.
Tai-Noi	Reported as 'Small Shān' in the Burma Linguistic Survey. In that Survey, Tai-Nō, as distinct from 'Small Shān,' is reported as spoken by 6,084 people in the Shan States. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, I, i, 195.
Tai-On	Another spelling of 'Tai-Awn,' <i>q.v.</i>
Tai-rong	55	150	...	II	...	64, 167, 215 (L.)	A dialect of Khāmī (52), spoken in Assam. The name is the Khāmī form of Tai-Lōng, <i>q.v.</i> It is also called Turūng or Shām Turūng.
Taiu	III	i	613	Another name for Digāru Mishmi. See Mishmi (126).
Tākanāri	IX XI	iii	188 2	Another name for Pār'dhi (699).
Tākpā	A form of Bhōtiā of Tibet (58) spoken in Eastern Tibet.
Talaing	The Burmese name for Mōn (3), <i>q.v.</i>
Talaing-Kalasi	A Karen language, reported in the 1921 Burma Census Report as spoken in Yamēthin.
Talaing-Kayin	Another name for Pwo Karen (35), <i>q.v.</i>
Talok	See Tayok.
Taman	2596	...	92	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as an unclassified language (probably Kuki-Chin) spoken by 1,350 people in Upper Chindwin.
Tāmāng Bhōtiā	III	i	189	Another name for Murmi (112), <i>q.v.</i>
Tamar	Another name for the preceding.
Tamariā (1)	IV	...	94	A form of Bhumij (17), <i>q.v.</i>
Tamariā (2) or Pāch Parganiā.	V	ii	140, 146, 166	A form of Eastern Magahī (518), see Magahī, Eastern.
Tamil	285	15,272,856	18,779,577	IV	...	286, 298, 646 (L.)	A language of the Dravida Group of the Dravidian languages, spoken in South-East and South Madras.
Tamil, Standard	286	15,207,256	...	IV	...	286, 298	
Tamiṛ	IV	...	298	Another spelling of Tamil (285), <i>q.v.</i>
Tamlu	III	ii	193, 329, 331	Another name for Chingmēgnu (174), <i>q.v.</i>
Tamulian	IV	...	7, <i>cf.</i> 278	A name used by Hodgson for the Munḍā languages.
Tāmuriā	The same as Tamariā (1), <i>q.v.</i>
Tānda	A Madras name for Banjāri (771), <i>q.v.</i>
Taneāgsari	Said to be the same as Tavoyan (270), <i>q.v.</i>
Tāngkhul	198	26,000	24,170	III	ii	431, 463, 480 (L.)	A Nāgā-Kuki language, spoken in Manipur State (Assam), and (according to the Burma Linguistic Survey) also by 5,500 people in Upper Chindwin. A corrected List of Words will be found in Addenda Majora, pp. 216ff.
Tāngkhul Proper	199	25,000	24,170	The principal dialect of Tāngkhul (198), <i>q.v.</i>
Tangair or Kwinpaung	277a	A Lolo-Mos'o language spoken in Putao (Burma) outside the Census area.
Tangutan	III	i	14	An old name for Bhōtiā of Tibet or Tibetan (58).
Tao-Rai	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of the Pale Dialect of Palaung (4), spoken by 3,571 people in Tawnpeng Northern Shan State.

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Tapong	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as an unclassified language spoken by 5,600 people (including speakers also of Ngorn and Bwelkwa) in the Chin Hills.
Ṭār	IV	...	33	Apparently a name used in Bonai State (Orissa) for Santālī (15). Cf. Ṭhār.
Tarau	The language of a small Old Kuki clan in Manipur State. It is closely allied to Lushēi (224).
Taren or Tareng	III	iii	382	Another name for Maingṭha (260), <i>q.v.</i>
Tārimūki or Ghisādi .	676	1,669	...	IX	ii	325, 453, 461	A dialect of Gujarātī (652) used by a wandering tribe of blacksmiths.
				XI	...	2	
Tarinō or Chalgari .	359	X	...	112	A form of the South-Western Dialect (348) of Paṣṭō (337) spoken in Baluchistan.
Tārōā	III	i	613	Another name for Digāru Mishmi. See Mishmi (126).
Tarok	See Tayok.
Taru	A form of Karenni (40), <i>q.v.</i>
Tāru	The name by which the Taungyo (267) people call themselves.
Tashōn	III	iii	107	Another name for Shunkla (216), <i>q.v.</i>
Tasmabāzi	XI	...	121	A form of Naṭi (867).
Taukte or Taute	III	iii	73	A Manipur name for Siyin (213), <i>q.v.</i>
Taungbu	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as an unclassified language spoken by 240 people in Northern Arakan.
Taanghlu or Tughla	A ghost-name of a non-existent language, founded on a misprint or misreading of the name 'Taungthu' (36), <i>q.v.</i>
Taung-sin	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a nickname given by Burmans to a variety of Chin spoken in the Magwe District. The number of speakers is said to be few.
Taungtha	255	...	6,253	III	iii	330, 360 (L.)	A Southern Chin language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. According to the Burma Linguistic Survey, it is spoken by 9,713 people in Pakōkku District. The speakers call themselves 'Rong-tu.'
Taungthu	36	...	210,535	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a dialect of Karen (31), spoken by 198,409 people in Thatōn, Amherst, Karenni, the Southern Shan States, and the neighbourhood.
Taungyo	267	...	22,532	III	iii	380	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 26,884 people in Meiktila and the Southern Shan States. It is a dialect of Burmese. The speakers call themselves 'Tāru.'
Tante or Taukte	III	iii	73	The Manipur name for Siyin (213), <i>q.v.</i>
Tavoyan	270	...	131,748	III	iii	379	A dialect of Burmese spoken in Amherst, Tavoy, and Mergui. It is closely connected with Inṭha (268), <i>q.v.</i>
Tawadi	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Marāṭhi (455), spoken in Khandesh. Probably the same as Tadavi, <i>q.v.</i> See 1921 Report, App. B, p. vi.
Tawargarhi	Another spelling of Tōwargarhi, i.e. Bhadauri (619), <i>q.v.</i>
Tawya Karen	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of Karen (31), spoken by 646 people in Toungoo District.
Tawhawng	205a	A form of Kachin (203) spoken in Putao.
Tawngma	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of Palaung (4) spoken by 224 people in the Northern Shan States.
Tawthu	<i>I.q.</i> Taungthu (36), <i>q.v.</i>
Tawyan	III	iii	107	A form of Shunkla (216).
Tayang	A form of Karenbyu (33), <i>q.v.</i>

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		According to the Linguistic Survey.	According to the Census of 1921.	Volume.	Part.	Page.	
Taying	III	i	613	Another name for Digāru Mishmi. See Mishmi (126).
Tayok	A Burmese word for Chinese, also spelt Tarok and Talok. Cf. Anya Tayok, Momyin Tayok, and Shān Tayok.
Tehri or Gaṅgāpāriyā .	813	240,281	...	IX	iv	280, 343, 355 (L.)	A form of the Garhwālī Dialect (804) of Central Pahāṛī (784), spoken in Tehri Garhwal (U. P.).
Tekari	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Marāṭhī (455) spoken in Khandesh.
Telīnga	IV	...	576	Another name for Telugu (319), <i>q.v.</i>
Telugu	319	19,783,901	23,601,492	IV	...	286, 576, 649 (L.)	A member of the Andhra Group of the Dravidian languages, spoken in Madras, the Nizam's Dominions, and parts of Mysore, the Central Provinces, and Berar.
Telugu, Standard . .	320	19,735,840	...	IV	...	286, 576	
Temulic	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Marāṭhī (455).
Tenae	III	i	573	Another name for Aka (122).
Tengimā	155	26,900	...	III	ii	204, 205, 246 (L.)	A dialect of Angāmi Nāgā (154), spoken in the Naga Hills (Assam).
Tengsa Nāgā (1)	III	ii	265, 290	A name sometimes wrongly given to Āo (166).
Tengsa Nāgā (2) . .	170	III	ii	193, 265, 290, 294 (L.)	A Central Nāgā language of the Nāgā Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken beyond the North-Eastern Frontier of Assam.
Tenugu	IV	...	576	Another spelling of Telugu (319).
Thādo or Thādo-pao .	207	31,437	33,258	III	iii	2, 10 (Comparative Vocab.), 59, 88 (L.)	A Northern Chin language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in Manipur, the Naga Hills, Cachar, and Sylhet (Assam). According to the Burma Linguistic Survey, it is also spoken by 5,030 people in the Chin Hills and Upper Chindwin.
Thai or Thaiy	II	...	59	The Siamese form of the word 'Tai.' In Burma spelt Htai.
Thāk'ri	465	25,405	...	VII	...	61, 63, 109	A form of the Konkani Standard Dialect (457) of Marāṭhī (455) spoken by Thākurs of Kolaba and Nasik (Bombay).
Thākōri	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Gujarātī (652). Not identified.
Thāk'sya	110	III	i	399, 406	An Eastern Pronominalized Himalayan language of the Tibeto-Himalayan Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in Nepal. Its classification is doubtful.
Thālī (1) or Jaṭkī . .	432	759,310	...	VIII	i	239, 240, 381, 413 (L.)	A dialect of Lahndā (415), spoken in the Thāl, south of the Salt Range (Panjab).
Thālī (2)	733	480,900	...	IX	ii	16, 109, 304 (L.)	A form of the Mārwarī Dialect (713) of Rajasthānī (712), spoken in the Thāl of West Marwar (Rajputana).
Thalli	The name by which the Bāoris (681) and Sāsīs (871) of the Panjab call themselves.
Thālōchri	VIII	i	241, 280, 381, 383, 393.	Another name for the Thālī Dialect (432) of Lahndā (415) spoken in Jhang.
Thāmī	84	100	423	III	i	177, 274, 280	An Eastern Pronominalized Himalayan language of the Tibeto-Himalayan Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, mainly spoken in Nepal, but also found in Sikkim, Darjiling and the neighbourhood (Bengal).
Thamidi	A name for Korava (287) used in Coorg.
Tha-Mo	A form of Wa (5) reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey, where the name is spelt 'Hta-Mo,' as spoken by 9,318 people in the Manglun East, Northern Shan State.
Thangsa	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey, where the name is spelt 'Htangsa,' as a form of Nung or Khunung (277a), <i>q.v.</i> , spoken by 1,500 people in the Putao District. Probably the same as Tangsir (277a), <i>q.v.</i>
Thaote	Another name for Siy in (213), <i>q.v.</i>

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Thār	A name frequently used in Eastern India as a general designation for any caste or tribal dialect.
				IV	...	30	In Bankura (Bengal) and Morbhānj (Orissa) it is specifically used to indicate Santālī (15). Cf. Tār.
Thar and Parkar, Guj-arātī of.	IX	ii	326	
Tharēli or Dhātākī	448	VIII	i	9, 10, 142	A dialect of Sindhi (445) spoken in the Sind-Rajputana Desert. It is a mixture of Mārwarī (713) and Sindhi, and the Survey figures for it are included under Mārwarī.
Tharōchi	Another name for the Kīrni (827) spoken in Taroch.
Thārū	V	ii	311	The name of a wild tribe of the Nepal Tarni, which usually speaks a broken form of the speech of its Aryan neighbours.
				IX	i	319	Thus, we have it used as a synonym for Bhukṣā, a mongrel form of Braj Bhākhā (592) spoken in Naini Tal (U. P.).
				VI	...	131	Thārū Awadhī, a mongrel form of Awadhī (558) spoken in Khēri (U. P.).
	528	39,700	...	V	ii	42, 44, 300, 311, 329 (L.).	Thārū Bhojpuri, a form of Bhojpuri (519) spoken in Champaran (Bihar and Orissa) and the north-east of the U. P.
	512	2,300	...	V	ii	86, 311	Thārū Maithili, a form of Maithili (507) spoken in the north of Purnea (Bihar and Orissa).
Thebūr Skadd	III	i	430	Another name for Kanauri (77).
Theinlaw	The Burmese pronunciation of 'Chingpaw' (204), <i>q.v.</i>
Thet, That, or Sak	234	...	614	III	iii	329	Formerly classed as a Southern Chin language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. According to the Burma Linguistic Survey, it is spoken by 451 people in Akyab. The Census groups it as a member of the Sak (Lui) Group, and not as Kuki-Chin.
Thetta	III	iii	115	A form of Lai (219), <i>q.v.</i>
Theya or Tiyyar	Coorg names for Malayālam (293).
Thitauk	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a sub-dialect of Taungtha (36) spoken in the Southern Shan States. Cf. Titauk.
Thochu	A form of Bhōtiā of Tibet (58) spoken in Eastern Tibet.
Thukumi	171	III	ii	193, 265, 290	A Central Nāgā language of the Nāgā Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken beyond the North-Eastern Frontier of Assam.
Thūlung	102	III	i	343 (Vocab.), 368	An Eastern Pronominalized Himalayan language of the Tibeto-Himalayan Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in Nepal.
Tibarskad	III	i	430	A local name for Kanauri (77). A corruption of Thebūr Skadd, <i>q.v.</i>
Tibotan	III	i	14	Another name for the Bhōtiā of Tibet (58), <i>q.v.</i>
Tibetan Group	...	205,508	231,835	III	i	2	A group of the Tibeto-Himalayan Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages.
Tibetan Lama	III	i	73	A name sometimes given to Bhōtiā of Tibet or Tibetan (58).
Tibeto-Burman Sub-Family.	...	1,980,307	11,959,011	III	i	1	A Sub-Family of the Tibeto-Chinese Family of languages. Most of the languages belonging to it are spoken in Burma, and hence were not subject to the operations of this Survey.
Tibeto-Chinese Family	...	1,984,512	12,885,346	It includes two Sub-Families, the Siamese-Chinese and the Tibeto-Burman. Most of the languages of this family belong to Burma, and hence were not subject to the operations of this Survey.
Tibeto-Himalayan Branch	...	399,742	440,263	A Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken mainly in the Sub-Himalaya. Many are spoken in Nepal, a country which was not subject to the operations of this Survey.
Tigalar or Tigular	IV	...	298	A Kanarese name for Tamil (285). Also spelt Tigalu, Tigleru.

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Ṭikuli-hārī	VI	...	118	A name given to the Awadhī (558) spoken by Ṭikuli-hārīs in the Champaran District (Bihar and Orissa).
Tilwandi	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Marāṭhī (455) spoken in Poona.
Tinan	III	i	467	Another name for Ranglōi (75), <i>q.v.</i>
Tināuli . . .	435	5,425	...	VIII	i	241, 541, 570	A form of the Hindkō Dialect (433) of Lahndā (415), spoken in the western part of Hazara District (N.-W. Frontier Province).
Tinteki-yā . . .	147	1,400	...	III	ii	96, 100	A dialect of Kōch (142), spoken in Goalpara and the Garo Hills (Assam).
Tinūn	Another spelling of Tinan, <i>q.v.</i>
Tipurā or Mrung . .	151	105,850	163,720	III	ii	2, 4, 109, 137 (L.).	A language of the Bārā Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in Hill Tipperah (Bengal) and the neighbouring British Districts.
Tirāhī . . .	389	VIII	ii	2	A language of the Kalāshā-Pashai Sub-Group of the Kāfir Group of the Dardic or Pisācha languages spoken in Nigrahar (Afghanistan). For an account of the language, with a specimen and vocabulary, see <i>Addenda Majora</i> , pp. 265ff.
Tir-huti-yā	V	ii	13, 54	Another name for Maithilī (507), <i>q.v.</i>
Tirguli	Reported in the 1891, 1901, and 1911 Bombay Census Reports as a Gipsy language spoken in Ahmednagar, Poona, Sholapur, and Satara and elsewhere. See 1921 Report, Appendix B, p. vi, where its existence is doubted.
Tirhārī	'The language of the River-bank.' Hence used to indicate riparian dialects spoken along the Ganges or Jamnā, <i>viz.</i> :—
	562	225,700	...	VI	...	19, 132	A form of the Baghelī Dialect (559) of Eastern Hindī (557), spoken in Fatehpur, Banda, and Hamirpur (U. P.), on the Jamnā.
	608	40,000	...	IX	i	82, 401, 409	Tirhārī of Cawnpur (U. P.), on the Ganges. It is a form of the Kanauijī Dialect (604) of Western Hindī (581).
Titauk	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a sub-dialect of Taungtha (36) spoken by 4,300 people in the Southern Shan States. <i>Cf.</i> Thitauk.
Tivū Bāshā	'Island language.' The same as Mahl (501).
Tiyyar	See Theya.
Tlantlang . . .	231	4,925	...	III	iii	115, 126	A dialect of Lai (219) spoken in the Chin Hills. It is reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey under the name of 'Klang-klang,' the number of speakers not being stated.
Tlongsai	III	iii	126	Another name for Lakher (223), <i>q.v.</i>
Toda . . .	303	736	663	IV	...	286	A language of the Dravidā Group of the Dravidian languages, spoken in the Nilgiri Hills (Madras).
Toduva	Another name for Toda (303).
Tongan	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a Nāgā language spoken by 4,000 people in Upper Chindwin.
Tōrāwāṭī . . .	743	342,554	...	IX	ii	31, 173	A form of the Central Eastern Dialect (740) of Rājasthānī (712), spoken in Jaipur State (Rajputana).
Tōru	The same as Taungyo (267), <i>q.v.</i>
Tōrwālāk	VIII	ii	514	Another name for Tōrwālī (409), <i>q.v.</i>
Tōrwālī or Tōrwālāk .	409	VIII	ii	3, 507, 514, 530 (L.).	A dialect of Kōhistānī (407), spoken in the Swat and Panjkora Kohistans.
Totiga	The name of a sub-division of Brāhmaṇs of South Canara (Madras), who speak Marāṭhī (455).
Tōṭō . . .	131	200	271	III	i	178, 180, 250, 255 (L.).	A Non-Pronominalized Himalayan language of the Tibeto-Himalayan Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in the Baxa Sub-Division of Jalpaiguri (Bengal).
Toung-Mrū	Another name for Mrū (364), <i>q.v.</i>
Tōwargarhī	IX	i	531	Another name for Bhadauri (615), <i>q.v.</i>
Tozhumu	III	ii	290	Another name for Yachumi (172), <i>q.v.</i>

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Tribhōli	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Bengali (529) spoken in Ahmednagar.
Trimāli	Reported in the Bombay Census Reports as a Gipsy language spoken in Kolaba, Sholapur, Khandesh, Ahmednagar and elsewhere. The speakers are religious mendicants. From East Khandesh it is reported that their language is a mixture of Tamil (285) and Kanarese (296). See 1921 Bombay Census Report, App. B, p. vi.
Tsangho	III	ii	204	Another name for Angāmi (154), <i>q.v.</i>
Tsangpā or Tsāngla	The same as Chānglō, <i>q.v.</i>
Tsi	Another name for Szi, <i>q.v.</i>
Tsin-pō	III	ii	505	Another name for Singpho (205), <i>q.v.</i>
Tsoghāmi	III	ii	204	Another name for Angāmi (154), <i>q.v.</i>
Tsōntsū	III	ii	193	Another name for Lhōtā (169), <i>q.v.</i>
Tsungumi	III	ii	204	Another name for Angāmi (154), <i>q.v.</i>
Tada	Another spelling of Toda (303), <i>q.v.</i>
Tukai mee	III	ii	424	Apparently the same as Khoirāo (188), <i>q.v.</i>
Tulu, Tuluva, or Tulvi	302	491,728	592,325	IV	...	286	A language of the Dravida group of the Dravidian languages, spoken in South Canara (Madras).
Tuluku or Turaka	The common Dravidian corruption of the word 'Turk.' Hence used in Madras as a synonym for Hindostāni (582).
Tunghlu	Another spelling of Taunghlu, <i>q.v.</i>
Tūri or Turiyā	21	3,727	11,932	IV	...	21, 28, 128	A dialect of Kherwārī (14), spoken in the south of Chota Nagpur and the adjoining part of the C. P.
Turūng	The same as Tairong (55), <i>q.v.</i>
Tuwāngi	A form of Bhōtiā of Tibet or Tihetan (58) spoken in the Eastern Himalaya.
Twī-li-chang	A dialect of Chinbōk (252), reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 7,946 people in Yamethin.
Twī-sheep (? Twī-shīp)	A dialect of Chinbōn (254), reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 986 people in Pakōkku.
Ubbēchi, Ubbēji, or Ubbēki	VIII	i	138, 360, 361, 363.	Literally 'the Language of Up-the-River,' and hence used in Sind for the Sirāiki Hindki (429), <i>q.v.</i> , spoken in the north of that Province.
Ubbēdi Bōli	The same as Gujari (776). A name sometimes used in the Panjab, especially in Gujrat District.
Uchaliā or Uchliā	XI	...	17	A corrupt Telugu (319) mixed with Marāṭhi (455) spoken in Poona and Satara (Bombay) by a tribe of pickpockets. Perhaps the same as Bhamṭi (856). At any rate, its speakers are called Bhamṭis.
Uchchhi	Another name for Mūltāni (426). The name is taken from the Town of Uchchh or Ooch.
Uchon	The name of a written character used for writing Tibetan (58). Sometimes incorrectly used as a name for that language.
Uchliā	Another spelling of Uchaliā, <i>q.v.</i>
Udaipuri	IX	ii	4	Another name for Mēwārī (720), <i>q.v.</i>
Ujaini	IX	ii	4	Another name for Mālvi (760), <i>q.v.</i>
Ujāniā	V	i	224	Another name for Sylhettiā (548), <i>q.v.</i>
U-Khwombo	A form of Bhōtiā of Tibet or Tibetan (58), spoken in Central Tibet.
Ularkhaṇḍi	Reported in 1921 Bombay Census Report as a dialect of Western Hindi (581) spoken in Nasik and Khandesh. Not identified.
Undro	Another spelling of Andro (279), <i>q.v.</i>
Unzā	163	2,750	...	III	ii	193, 235	A dialect of Rongmā (162), spoken in the Naga Hills (Assam).

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Upparakārī	A corrupt form of Kōṅkārī (494) used in South Canara (Madras) by a fishing caste.
Upper Sind Frontier, Balōchī of.	366	125,510	...	X	...	401, 435 (L.)	A form of the Eastern Dialect (365) of Balōchī (361). It is also called the Jacobabad Sub-Dialect. The Survey figures also include those for Dera Ghazi Khan (Panjab).
Orālī	The same as Kurumba (299). Really, the name of a tribe of Kurumbas in the Nilgiri Hills (Madras).
Urang	IV	...	406	Another name for Kurukh (305). The name was returned from Patna State (Orissa).
Urāō	IV	...	406	Another name for Kurukh (305).
Urdū	585	IX	i	44, 47 (meaning of name), 116, 134.	A form of the Hindōstānī Dialect (582) of Western Hindi (581). It is generally written in the Persian character, and is distinguished by the free use of words borrowed from Persian or Arabic.
Uriyā	V	ii	367	An incorrect spelling of Oriyā (502), <i>q.v.</i>
Urmurī	Another spelling of Ōrmurī (360), <i>q.v.</i>
Ur-per	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a dialect of Chinbōn (254), spoken by 443 people in Pakōkku.
Urudu	A Coorg spelling of Urdū (585), <i>q.v.</i>
Utkalī	V	ii	367	Another name for Oriyā (502), <i>q.v.</i>
Utrōchī	Mentioned in the 1891 N.-W. P. Census Report as the name of the dialect of Tarhoch (Panjab Hill State). The same as Kirnī (827), <i>q.v.</i>
Uttarī or Uttarkhaṇḍī	A name for Awadhī (558) used in Rewa.
Vaḍaga, Vaḍugu, or Vaṭuka.	A Tamil name for Telugu (319). <i>Cf. Waṭuga.</i>
Vaḍarī (1)	XI	...	17	Another name for Bhamṭā. <i>Cf. Bhamṭī</i> (856).
Vaḍarī (2)	325	27,099	...	IV XI	...	577, 607 1	A dialect of Telugu (319). Widely spoken by wandering tribes in Central and Western India. By some considered a Gipsy language. <i>Cf. Vadra.</i>
Vāḍ*vaḷ	473	3,500	...	VII	...	3, 65, 130, 144	A form of the Konkani Standard Dialect (457) of Marāṭhī (455), spoken by Vāḍvals of the coast parts of Thana District (Bombay).
Vaḍḍī	A Madras mis-spelling of Oriyā (502).
Vaḍōdarī	663	IX	ii	409	A dialect of Gujarātī (652) spoken in Baroda.
Vadra	A Gipsy language reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as spoken in Kanara. Probably the same as Vaḍarī (2) (325).
Vaḍugu	IV	...	577	A Tamil name for Telugu (319). See Vaḍaga.
Vāḡḍī or Vāḡrī	See Bāḡrī or Vāḡḍī. Also spelt Vāḡhḍī or Vāḡhṛī. Also another spelling of Wāḡḍī (706), <i>q.v.</i>
Vāḡhḍī, Vāḡrī	See the preceding.
Vāḡhirkī	Reported in 1921 Bombay Census Report, Appendix B, p. vi, as spoken in Sukkur. It is classed as Sindhi, (445), but Mr. Sedgwick adds that it was most likely returned by members of the Vāḡhri caste, who probably speak Gujarātī.
Vāḡurī	A Gipsy language reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report. Probably the same as Bāḡrī or Vāḡḍī, <i>q.v.</i>
Vaiphei	249	...	2,882	An Old Kuki language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It is not dealt with in this Survey, and is not mentioned in the Burma Linguistic Survey.
Valavḍī	Reported in the 1921 Baroda Census Report as a form of Chōḍh*ri (684).
Valvandī	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Gujarātī (652). Not identified.
Vangcho	Said to be a Kuki-Chin language of the Lushai Hills (Assam). Not identified.
Vāṇī	Another name for Mārwarī (713).

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Banjāri	Another spelling of Banjāri (771), <i>q.v.</i>
Varayal	A Bhil language (677) reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as spoken in Khandesh. Not identified.
Varhādi or Bērāri	477	2,084,023	...	VII	...	1, 217, 248, 393 (L.).	A form of the Berar Dialect (476) of Marāṭhī (455) spoken in Berar.
Vārli	472	92,000	...	VII IX	...	2, 65, 130, 141 95, 108, 151, 157	A form of the Konkan Standard Dialect (457) of Marāṭhī (455), spoken in Thana and Khandesh (Bombay).
Varōḍi	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Marāṭhī (455) spoken in Khandesh. Probably a mis-spelling of Varhādi, <i>q.v.</i>
Vasal	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of Marāṭhī (455) spoken in Khandesh.
Vasava	Name of a tract in North-West Khandesh, and of the Bhil dialect spoken there. The latter is Dēhāwali (685) <i>q.v.</i> See 1921 Bombay Census Report, App. B, p. vi.
Vatezhuttu	Another name for Malayālam (293). It is properly the name of the ancient alphabet of the language.
Vaṭuka	A Tamil name for Telugu (319). See Vaḍaga.
Vāyu or Hāyu	106	III	i	178, 276, 382	An Eastern Pronominalized Himalayan language of the Tibeto-Himalayan Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. Spoken in Nepal.
Veron	VIII	ii	2, 59	Another name for Wasī-veri (381), <i>q.v.</i>
Vhōrāsāi	672	10,150	...	IX	ii	436	A dialect of Gujarātī (652). It is a caste-language of Bōhrās, and is also called Bōhari.
Vichōli	446	1,375,686	...	VIII	i	9, 14 (Grammar), 96, 214 (L.).	The standard dialect of Sindhī (445), spoken in the country round Hyderabad (Sind).
Vilāyati	A name sometimes used for Paṣṭō (337), <i>q.v.</i>
Viṭṭilimā, Viṭṭoliā	See Kōṭvāli.
Vodda or Voḍḍar	Another name for Ōḍki (868), <i>q.v.</i>
Vōjivkā	Reported in the 1921 Bombay Census Report as a Bhil dialect spoken in West Khandesh.
Vrash	Reported in the 1891 Bombay Census Report as a form of 'Hindi' spoken in Thana. Probably a corruption of 'Braj'. See Braj Bhākhā.
Vuite	A form of Paitō (215) spoken in the Chin Hills.
Wa or La	5	...	13,648	A language of the Palaung-Wa Group of the Mōn-Khm̄r Branch of the Austro-Asiatic languages. It is reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey to be spoken by 38,721 people in the Shan States. It is not dealt with in this Survey.
Wādari, Wādāri, or Bederi	Various spellings of the name Wādari (3) (325), <i>q.v.</i>
Wādwal	Another spelling of Vād'val (473), <i>q.v.</i>
Wāg'di	706	525,375	...	IX	iii	6, 38	A dialect of Bhili (677), spoken in Mewar (Rajputana) and the adjoining country. Also spelt Bāgari, Vāgdi, or Vāgri.
Wāghri	See Vāgdi.
Wai-alā	380	VIII	ii	2, 29, 45, 112 (L.).	A language of the Kāfir Group of the Dardic or Pisācha languages spoken in the valley of the Waigal River in Kāfiristan. Also called Wai-gali or Wai.
Wai-gali	See Wai-alā.
Wakhī	370	X	...	455, 457, 532 (L.).	A language of the Ghālchah Sub-Group of the Eastern Group of the Eranian languages. Spoken in Wakhan.
Waling	95	III	i	342 (Vocab.), 357	A dialect of Khambū (87), spoken in Nepal.
Wālvi	IX	iii	108	A form of Bhili (677) spoken in Baroda. Probably a form of Rāgi Bhil (703).
Wanāng	146	1,100	...	III	ii	96	A dialect of Kōch (142), spoken in the Garo Hills (Assam).
Wanjāri	IX	iii	255, 261	Another name for Banjāri (771), used in Berar.

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Wār	12	7,000	...	II	...	4, 30, 39 (L.)	A dialect of Khāsī (8), spoken in the Khasi and Jaintia Hills (Assam).
Warhāḍī	Another spelling of Varhāḍī (477), <i>q.v.</i>
Wārli	VII	...	141	Another spelling of Vārli (472), <i>q.v.</i>
				IX	iii	95, 108, 151, 157	
Warshikwār or Biltum of Yāsin.	852	VIII	ii	559	A dialect of Burushaskī (850), spoken in Yāsīn.
Waruga	IV	...	377	A German name for Telugu (319), <i>q.v.</i> Cf. Vaḍaga.
Wasī-veri or Veron .	381	VIII	ii	2, 10 (L.), 29, 59, 112 (L.).	A language of the Kāfir Group of the Dardic or Pisācha languages, spoken in Kāfiristan.
Wat'ao-Khum	277a	...	40	A Lolo-Mos'o language spoken in Myitkyina (Burma).
Wazīrī	353	X	...	91, 113 (L.)	A form of the South-Western Dialect (348) of Paṣhtō (337), spoken in Waziristan (Afghanistan) and the neighbourhood.
We-Kut	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as probably only an alternative name for Tai-Loi (2), <i>q.v.</i>
Welam	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a Nāgā language, spoken by 1,000 people in Upper Chindwin.
Welaung	251	III	iii	3, 329	A Southern Chin language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages. It is referred to in the Burma Linguistic Survey, p. 54, as not reported since 1901.
Western Balōchī . . .	362	324,899	...	X	...	329, 336 (Grammar), 364 (specimens), 434 (L.).	A dialect of Balōchī (361) spoken in Western Baluchistan and in Persian Baluchistan. There are also some speakers in Karachi (Sind).
Western Hindī	581	38,013,928	96,714,369 (41,210,916)	IX	i	xiii, 1, 47 (meaning of name).	A language of the Central Group of the Inner Sub-Branch of the Indo-Aryan languages, spoken in the western end of the Gangetic Valley and the neighbourhood. Regarding the Census figures, see No. 531.
Western Nāgā	68,930	88,264	III	ii	193, 205	A Sub-Group of the Nāgā Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, mainly spoken in the Naga Hills (Assam).
Western Pahārī	814	853,468	1,633,915	IX	i	xiii	A language of the Pahārī Group of the Inner Sub-Branch of the Indo-Aryan languages, spoken in the Hills of the North-East Panjab. The Census figures are excessive.
				IX	iv	1, 373, 376 (compared with other languages).	
Western Pañjābī	VIII	i	233, etc.	Another name for Lahndā (415).
Western Paṣhāi	387	VIII	ii	89, 113 (L.)	A dialect of Paṣhāi (385), <i>q.v.</i>
Western Pronominalized languages.	...	27,093	22,733	III	i	427	A Sub-Group of the Pronominalized Himalayan Group of the Tibeto-Himalayan Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in the Western Sub-Himalaya.
Wewa or Wewaw . . .	41a	...	256	A form of Sgaw Karen (34), spoken in Tavoy and Karenni (Burma).
Whench	III	iii	107	A form of Shunkla (216). It should properly be spelt Hweno.
White Karen	See Karenbyu.
White Miao	See Pé Miao.
Yabaing	III	iii	379	Another spelling of Yabein, <i>q.v.</i>
Yabein	III	iii	379	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of Burmese (265), spoken by 300 people in Pegu. Also sometimes spelt Yabaing, Zabein, or Labein. It has now apparently dropped out of use.
Yachumi	172	III	ii	193, 265, 290, 295 (L.).	A Central Nāgā language of the Nāgā Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken beyond the north-eastern frontier of Assam.
Yaghnōbī	X	...	455	A Ghalchah language of the Eastern Group of the Iranian languages, spoken in Zarafshān. Not dealt with in this Survey.
Yahow	III	iii	109	Another name for Zahao (218), <i>q.v.</i>

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Yakaing	The Burmese name for Arakanese (266), <i>q.v.</i>
Yakhā	86	1,250	1,087	III	i	178, 275, 305	An Eastern Pronominalized Himalayan language of the Tibeto-Himalayan Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, spoken in Darjiling (Bengal) and the upper valleys of Nepal.
Yallaing	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a form of Shandu spoken by 600 people in North Arakan. Shandu is another name for Chin.
Yam-Lang	Another name for the Shang-Yang-Lam dialect of Yin or Riāng, <i>q.v.</i>
Yānādi	A form of Telugu (319) spoken by Yānādis. It is described as Telugu with a drawling pronunciation of the long vowels.
Yanbye	272	...	250,018	A form of Arakanese (266), spoken in Kyaukpyu and Akyab. The Burmese pronunciation of 'Ramre,' <i>q.v.</i>
Yang	7a	...	1,197	See Yin.
Yang-kaw-leng	See Yanglam.
Yanglam	6	...	12,853	A Palaung-Wa language spoken in the Shan States. Also called Karennet, Yang-wan-kun, or Yang-kaw-leng.
Yangsek	The same as Riāng-leng, <i>q.v.</i>
Yangtalai	See Yintalai.
Yang-Wan-Kun	See Yanglam.
Yanyet	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as an unclassified language spoken by 5,400 people in the Chin Hills.
Yao	42	...	197	III	iii	384	This language belongs, with Miao (43), to a group of languages spoken in Indo-China, and tentatively named the 'Man Languages.' According to the Burma Linguistic Survey it is spoken by 205 people in the Kengtūng Southern Shan State.
Yaw	272a	...	2	A dialect of Burmese spoken, according to the Burma Linguistic Survey, by 24,351 people in Pakōkku, Lower Chindwin, and the neighbourhood.
Yawdwin	III	iii	329, 360 (L.)	Probably a form of Chinbōk (252). According to the Burma Linguistic Survey, it is spoken in the Chin Hills.
Yawyin	III	ii	502	Another name for Lisu or Lis'aw (275), <i>q.v.</i> This is the name by which the speakers call themselves.
Yeinbaw	The same as Yinbaw (38), <i>q.v.</i>
Yā-jên	III	ii	500	A Chinese name for Kachin (203), <i>q.v.</i>
Yēmā or Jēmā	186	III	ii	411	A dialect of Empēo (183), spoken in the Naga Hills and North Cachar (Assam).
Yemshong	III	ii	290	Another name for Yachumi (172), <i>q.v.</i>
Yerava	295	2,587	...	IV	...	348	A dialect of Malayālam (293), spoken in Coorg.
Yerukala	288	55,116	...	IV XI	...	299, 318 1	A dialect of Tamil (285), probably the same as Korava (287). The Survey figures include those for Korava.
Yeshkun	VIII	ii	551	A name for Burushaski (850) used by the people of Nagar.
Yetun	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as an unclassified language spoken by 4,600 people (including speakers of unspecified dialects) in the Chin Hills. Probably the same as Yotun, <i>q.v.</i>
Yidghā	X	...	518	Incorrect for Yūdghā (378), <i>q.v.</i>
Yin or Riāng	1,197	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a Mōn-Khmér language, spoken by 27,699 people in the Southern Shan States. Cf. this Survey, Vol. II, p. 1, where the language is called Riāng. In the Census of 1921 it is entered as 'Yang.'
Yinbaw	38	...	5,362	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a dialect of Karen (31), spoken by 2,341 people in Karenni and the Southern Shan States.

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Yindu . . .	253	...	105	III	iii	3, 329	A Southern Chin language of the Kuki-Chin Group of the Assam-Burmese Branch of the Tibeto-Burman languages, reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken by 4,508 people in Pakòkku.
Yintalai or Yangtalai	A form of Karenni (45), <i>q. v.</i>
Yo or Zo . . .	223 ^a	...	5,449	See Zo.
Yodaya Shān	The Burmese name for Siamese (45).
Yokwa . . .	222	2,675	212	III	iii	115	A dialect of Lai (219). Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as spoken in the Chin Hills, the number of speakers not being stated.
Yotun . . .	259 ^b	...	5,109	A Kuki-chin language spoken in the Chin Hills. See Yetun.
Yoya . . .	205 ^a	A form of Kachin (203) spoken in Putao.
Yüdghā . . .	378	X	...	3, 4, 455, 456, 518, 533 (L.).	A dialect of Munjāni (377), spoken in the Lutkho Valley of North Chitral.
Yun	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as an alternative name for Annamese. Hitherto Annamese has been classed as a language of the Môn-Khmér Branch of the Austro-Asiatic languages, but the latest researches show that its basis is some language of the Tai Group of the Siamese-Chinese languages. In the Census of 1921 it is said to be a form of Lao (44), <i>q. v.</i>
Yünnanese	55,616	The Chinese dialect spoken in Yünnan. In Burma, spoken mostly in the Shan States. Cf. Anya Tayok, Khe-long, and Momyin Tayok. See also Tayok.
Yüsufzai Pashtō . . .	341	X	...	31	A form of the North-Eastern Dialect (338) of Pashtō (337), spoken in the north-east of Peshawar District (Panjab).
Zabein	The same as Yabein, <i>q. v.</i>
Zahao or Yahow . . .	218	2,000	10,045	III	iii	107, 109	A dialect of Shunkla (216). In the Burma Linguistic Survey, reported as a dialect of Lai (219) spoken in the Chin Hills, the number of speakers not being stated.
Zanskari	A dialect of Bhōtiā (57) spoken in Western Tibet. Probably akin to Bhōtiā of Parik (60).
Zao	III	iii	126	The Chin name for Lakher (223).
Zarein	See Zayein.
Zargari	XI	...	7, 10	An Indian schoolboy's argot.
Zarpī	An incorrect spelling of <i>Dgārpī</i> (480), <i>q. v.</i>
Zayein . . .	41	...	3,911	Reported in the Burma Linguistic Survey as a dialect of Karen (31), spoken by 4,151 people in the Southern Shan States. Also spelt Zarein.
Zebakī . . .	376	X	...	4, 455, 480, 533 (L.).	A dialect of Ishkāshmi (373), spoken in the country round Zebak.
Zend	X	...	9	Another name sometimes used for the Avesta language.
Zhimomi . . .	161	III	ii	222	A dialect of Semā (159), spoken in the Naga Hills (Assam).
Zo or Yo . . .	223 ^a	...	5,449	III	iii	109, 115, 126	A common name for the tribes of the Chin Hills (Burma). In the Burma Linguistic Survey, a language called Yo is reported as a Kuki-Chin language spoken by 4,500 people in the Chin Hills. So also in the Census, with 5,449 speakers.
Zungi	III	ii	265	Another name for Chungli (167), <i>q. v.</i>

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